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ABSTRACT

This document is a curriculum outline for a unit of a course in educational administration; it offers an overview of the educational system in Great Britain, with special emphasis on education of sixteen- to nineteeen-year-olds. The objectives of the unit are the following: (1) to explain the curricular traditions that influence the provision made for the sixteen- to nineteeen-year-olds and to describe the range of institutions that serves this age group; (2) to outline the policy problems raised in providing for sixteen- to nineteen-year-olds and analyze the factors that policy-makers would need to take into account were they to seek the objective of overall, coordinated control at the institutional, local, and central government levels; and (3) to discuss the running of the colleges of further education, and compare and contrast the government and control of these colleges with those of the schools. Material covered in the unit includes curricular traditions: academic, vocational, industrial, sixteen- to nineteen-year-olds; institutional arrangements: the school sixth form, colleges of further education, teachers' associations in further education, the tertiary college, and the 16-19 Federation; the question of the break in education at age sixteen; and an overall view and conclusion. Activities are provided for the various information areas. (KC)

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ED199383

THE OPEN UNIVERSITY

Educational Studies: A Second Level Course
E222 The Control of Education in Britain

Unit 12
The Colleges and Schools: Provision for the 16-19 Year Olds

Prepared for the Course Team by Colin Morgan in collaboration with Colin Turner

CE 026 893

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NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

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1.1

Objectives

When you have completed this unit you should be able to:

(a) explain the curricular traditions that influence the provision made for the sixteen to nineteen year olds and to describe the range of institutions that serves this age group;

(b) outline the policy problems raised in providing for sixteen to nineteen year olds, and analyse the factors that policy-makers would need to take into account were they to seek the objective of overall, coordinated control at the institutional, local and central government levels;

(c) discuss the running of the colleges of further education, and compare and contrast the government and control of these colleges with those of the schools.

Notes on studying Unit 12

CORRESPONDENCE TEXT

The correspondence text includes everything you are required to read. There is, however, one reading in Regan, the course's set book, that you are strongly recommended to read if you have the time, and two background readings which should prove invaluable for further study of the institutional arrangements for the sixteen to nineteen year olds.

RECOMMENDED READING

Regan, D. E. (1977) *Local Government and Education*, London, George Allen and Unwin Ltd., chapter X, 'Educating the school leaver', pp. 165–86.

FURTHER READING

Dean, J. and Choppin, B. (1977) *Educational Provision 16–19*, Windsor, National Foundation for Educational Research.

Macfarlane, E. (1978) *Sixth-Form Colleges: The 16–19 Comprehensives*, London, William Heinemann Ltd.

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1 Introduction

1.1 This unit is about policy-making for the public provision of education and training for the students described in the following quotation:

> In the past we educated the student until he was 15 (and then 16) and if he was bright he went into the sixth form, and if he was not quite so bright he went to the technical college, while there were the rest who left, got jobs and were largely forgotten. Not any more. The three categories of student are still with us, give or take some different establishments which have evolved to cater for them more recently, but now they have been joined by a fourth – the student who leaves and does not get a job and cannot be forgotten. We can no longer concentrate on the 30%–40% who opt to continue in education or training at 16. We also have a duty to provide for those who opt out. They should not find the door closed to them for ever, as a penalty for making a wrong choice at 16 . . . .
>
> (Somerset LEA)[1]

In the late 1970s, public educational policy for the sixteen to nineteen year olds had become an important topic of debate: issues of great complexity were discussed and some strongly held views ventilated. The main purpose of this unit is to explain the many issues involved in this debate.

1.2 First, I want you to read three short extracts which appeared in *The Times Educational Supplement* over a period of three weeks in 1977. These extracts are taken from two editorials on the provision for sixteen to nineteen year olds and a letter to the editor from the General Secretary of the TUC, Len Murray.

> Are pseudo academic courses in school sixth forms a sensible thing to add at this stage? Is it sensible to encourage the divorce of academic (or anyway non-vocational) study from vocational study after 16. Or the divorce of full-time from part-time? Provision for 16–18 year olds in full-time education is in danger of becoming as ridiculous a muddle as is provision for 16–19 year olds outside full-time education. It may be a standard journalistic fallback to call for a major inquiry, but if ever there was reason for one, the needs of 16–19 year olds now provide it!
>
> *(The Times Educational Supplement)*[2]

> Last week it was suggested in these columns that it was time for a major inquiry into the affairs of the 16–19 age group . . . why another committee? Why not simply intensive work inside the several government departments concerned, leading to a consultative document and early action? Because the issues are wide, the vested interests powerful and the philosophical dilemmas deep and difficult. . . . What is needed is nothing less than a new legal and administrative framework for the education, training and initiation into employment and adulthood of young people.
>
> *(The Times Educational Supplement)*[3]

> Sir, I am glad that the *Times Educational Supplement* has added its voice to the growing call for the establishment of comprehensive educational provision for the 16–19 age group, and the paper is right to argue that such provision must be a coordinated effort on the part of the education, employment and

training services. . . . There are, as the *TES* points out, powerful vested interests against change. There are areas too, no doubt, where trade unions will need to review their own approach. The preoccupation of the education service with academic success, a tendency strongly reinforced by the unreflective attitudes of parents and employers, is a matter of great concern.

Len Murray,
General Secretary TUC
(The Times Educational Supplement)[4]

1.3 These statements indicate that at the end of the 1970s the educational provision for the sixteen to nineteen year olds was in a mess and, in particular, they exemplify the view that a coordinated and comprehensive policy was so lacking that a major enquiry and plan of action was needed. You will, no doubt, have noted some of the specific points of concern: the balance between academic and vocational studies; the relationship between education, employment and training; powerful vested interests; deep and difficult philosophical dilemmas. Clearly, if education for the sixteen to nineteen year olds is as fragmented and as complex as these statements imply, I am immediately faced with the problem of how to describe unorganized, incoherent provisons and policies in an organized way.

1.4 What I propose to do is, first, to explain the curricular traditions that have borne on this age group and then to describe the institutional arrangements that served this group in the late 1970s. By this approach, I hope to expose the issues and demonstrate the great complexity of the many factors that policy-makers would need to take into account were they to pursue the objective of a unified and coordinated policy for sixteen to nineteen year olds. I believe that the evidence I shall present will support and explain the tenor of the statements quoted above.

1.5 The main aim of the unit, therefore, is to analyse the factors that have to be taken into account in determining policy for the sixteen to nineteen year olds. Within this overall perspective, I shall, however, be devoting a substantial part of the unit to the running of the colleges of further education, for this type of institution caters for the majority of sixteen to nineteen year olds who continue their education, either on a full or part-time basis, after compulsory schooling. Units 10 and 11 dealt with the running of the schools and described how schools have been govered and the constraints within which they have made their own policies. My treatment of the colleges of further education will offer an opportunity, as a subsidiary aim of Unit 12, to contrast the control of further education with that of the schools. As you will see, the formal arrangements for government and the constraints under which the colleges make their curricular policies are markedly different from those of the schools.

PLAN OF THE UNIT

1.6 This introduction forms section 1 of the unit and its purpose is to set the scene for the unit as a whole by presenting the sixteen to nineteen year old clients, the institutions that have served them and the major issues. Section 2 will outline the different curricular traditions represented in the overall provision for these students and section 3 will describe the full range of institutions (i.e. the schools and colleges) serving them. In particular, in section 3, I shall describe the types of college of further education and their characteristics, the students who attend them, the pattern of courses offered and the system of government. To many who raise the question of what would be a more

rational policy for the institutions that provide for this age group, the answer is seen to turn on whether LEAs should adopt a 'break at sixteen policy'. This option, together with a discussion of the factors that may influence what is attainable, will be considered in section 4. In conclusion, in section 5, I shall attempt to summarize the main issues that face the policy-makers.

THE CLIENTS AND THE INSTITUTIONS

1.7 The educational provision for the sixteen to nineteen year olds is often referred to as 'the 16–19 sector' as though provision for students in this age span had received an official definition. This is not in fact the case, for there is no one set of regulations covering students in this age group pursuing publicly provided courses. Table 1 shows something of the picture.

1.8 The first point you should note about the figures in Table 1 is that, when the numbers of full and part-time students are combined, it can be seen that the majority of students who continue past compulsory education do so in the further education sector. Secondly, in the mid-1970s, about 22 per cent of the sixteen to nineteen age group were in a school or college. This proportion was on the increase throughout the 1970s: by mid-1978 it had reached 29.5 per cent and was estimated to reach 33 per cent by 1981–2.

1.9 Table 1 distinguishes between students in the school and further education sectors. Each sector has its own regulations and traditions, and this division of responsibility for the sixteen to nineteen year olds at the institutional level is paralleled at local and central government levels, where schools and further education institutions are administered separately. What Table 1 does not show is that courses of training for this age group are also provided by agencies outside the educational service as such. In addition to industry itself, the employment and training services linked to the Department of Employment also sponsor a range of courses. Policy is, therefore, not only divided within education, but is also divided between the Department of Education and Science and the Department of Employment at the national level, and, at local level, between LEAs and the area training boards supported by the Department of Employment.

1.10 Table 1 indicates the distribution of students between schools and further education. Taken as a whole and ignoring, for this purpose, the distinction between full-time and part-time students, you can see that there are almost twice as many students in further education as there are in the schools. Table

TABLE 1 Students aged 16–19 in schools and colleges in the mid-1970s[5]

*Full-time students in maintained institutions in the schools sector**	*(percentage of age group)*	*Full and part-time students in maintained institutions in the further education sector**			
		full-time†	*(% of age group)*	*part-time‡*	*(% of age group)*
281,018	(7)	129,500	(4)	407,400	(11)

*The schools' figures are for 1976: the FE figures are for 1975.
†Includes students on 'sandwich' courses.
‡Excludes 205,000 students on part-time evening courses in evening institutes.

1 does not indicate, though, the various types of institution in each sector. These are shown in Table 2 below.

1.11 'Tertiary college' and '16–19 federation' are likely to be unfamiliar terms, whereas the other types of institution given in Table 2 are generally well known. The tertiary college is really a further education college to which has been added all of the work which would otherwise have been provided in the school sixth forms in its locality. It, therefore, provides a complete range of full-time and part-time courses for all sixteen to nineteen year olds in a given catchment area. The '16–19 federation' is not an institution as such, but a coordinating mechanism whereby duplication of courses between schools and colleges in a given locality is avoided. I shall discuss each of these institutions later, when it will be clearly seen that the policy issues involved are nothing if not complex and that, however much a particular policy may commend itself in theory, in practice it will need to take into account the different institutional arrangements, each with its own traditions, special claims and regulations.

1.12 In the main, the differences between the agreements which govern the schools and further education need not concern you here. They are very largely concerned with the different ways in which schools and colleges are staffed and the conditions of service under which teachers work. For example, teachers in further education have a fixed working week with a set number of teaching hours and, unlike teachers in the schools, are eligible for overtime payment if they exceed this number of hours. Teachers in schools have conditions of service which do not require them to work evenings, whereas any teacher in further education can be called upon to teach for at least two evenings a week.

1.13 Besides differences of tradition and regulations within the sectors of the educational service, there is, as has already been indicated, a distinction between what counts as education and what counts as industrial training. The origin of this distinction will become evident in the next section, but of relevance here is the fact that, besides the educational institutions themselves, there are a number of agencies, such as industrial training boards or the Manpower Services Commission, which make and implement training policies for the sixteen to nineteen year olds that affect the educational institutions in two ways. First, the institutions implement part of the total training policy and, secondly, the training services buy part of their provision from the educational service.

1.14 Given the fact that there are different regulations, different providers, a variety of institutions and a lack of an official definition, how can I state precisely what is meant by the sixteen to nineteen 'sector'. It can be defined as comprising the post-compulsory educational provisions for sixteen to nineteen year olds made in institutions not primarily devoted to higher education. Hence, there would not be included within this 'sector' the universities, polytechnics and colleges and institutes of higher education, which all have a majority of students over nineteen years of age. (These will be dealt with in Unit 13.)

TABLE 2 The institutions that provide for 16–19 year olds

School sector	*Further education sector*
School sixth forms	Colleges of further education
Sixth-form colleges	Tertiary colleges
	16–19 federations

1.15 One of the main aims of this unit is to expose the issues and dilemmas that face the policy-makers who endeavour to treat the sixteen to nineteen sector as a whole. There are two main, though overlapping, aspects to the whole complexity of policy for this age group and you need to note them here before discussing them in more detail. The first concerns the organizational or institutional aspect of the overall problem and it can be expressed by posing a number of questions: should the institutions that serve this age group be allowed free rein to make provision as they see fit, or should there either be a measure of coordination which retains a choice of institution for the student, but avoids duplication of provision, or, more radically, should there be a concentration of all sixteen to nineteen education into comprehensive tertiary colleges?

1.16 The second aspect concerns the overall balance of curricular provision. In Britain, there have been separate traditions between *academic education* and *vocational education*, and between vocational education and *vocational training* in skills and crafts. What should be the balance between these spheres of learning is very much part of the overall debate, as you saw in the views expressed in the opening quotations.

1.17 At the end of the 1970s, the whole direction of policy development, as you will see later, was to foster, in terms of provision, a unified vocational approach which would end the historic divorce between education and training. There still remains, however, the question of what should be the balance between academic education and this unified vocational education in the public provision for sixteen to nineteen year olds. This is also true of the very large question of what form of central and local government organization might best coordinate the resource and organizational policies of the various providers for this age group.

2 Curricular traditions

2.1 I have already indicated that there have been distinct and separate curricular traditions in the total provision made for the sixteen to nineteen year olds. The larger topic to the debate about the best pattern of institutions to serve this age group is closely connected with competing views on curricular policy. In origin, the academic, vocational and industrial training curricular traditions that have dominated provision for the sixteen to nineteen age group are, as you will see, very separate from each other. Each developed in a different institutional setting and their separate growths reflect policies that made different educational provisions for different social classes and accorded quite different priorities to each of the curricular traditions. These traditions are no longer exclusively associated with parallel provisions in different institutional settings, for a degree of overlap has grown up. The extent to which further overlap or a total merger of these curricular traditions should be encouraged was very much a part of the wider debate in the late seventies.

THE ACADEMIC TRADITION

2.2 The academic tradition has a long history. It can be traced from the medieval academic schools, which were essentially prevocational schools for clerics,

through those schools of the Renaissance and post-Renaissance periods, which were designed to produce gentlemen of leisure, to the grammar schools. Although grammar schools of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries introduced new subjects, they essentially drew their curriculum from the classical and moral philosophy models of the past. The hallmarks and ethos of the more recent expression of the academic tradition are conveyed in the following extract about the sixth form of a traditional grammar school, St Trads, in the early 1970s. Later in the unit, I shall compare the curricular picture it presents with one drawn from some comprehensive school sixth forms at the end of the 1970s.

READING 1 The Sixth Form of St Trad's

St Trad's was a mixed grammar school of nearly 900 pupils, of which, just over 200 were in the sixth. (Although only about a third of grammar schools are mixed, a mixed school was chosen for comparison purposes as most other forms of post-sixteen education are co-educational.) Entry into the sixth form proper was confined to those with at least four O level passes. Those without, could enter a group called the lower sixth general where they prepared for the winter session of O level examinations. The group ceased to exist after this time and, depending on their examination results and wishes, pupils could enter the sixth form proper or leave school. . . .

Most of the sixth form were preparing for A level examinations (93 per cent) but nearly half (49 per cent) were also preparing for some O levels as well. Most of them agreed that there was a strong emphasis on exams in the sixth form but did not feel that their teachers were only interested in those who did well. They all followed a minority time programme, and most felt it took up valuable time. The amount of private study time varied according to a pupil's other commitments, but most of them (59.8 per cent) were satisfied with this provision. Most found work in the sixth no harder than they had expected but a majority felt the need for more individual help (58.7 per cent) and the desire for more discussion (66.5 per cent). School work was formally assessed every term for both effort and achievement, and internal examinations were set twice a year. However, most sixth formers agreed that they decided for themselves how much work they did.

Being a sixth former was associated with a number of privileges which in many cases were relaxations of rules continuing for younger pupils. Unlike the rest of the school, uniform was not compulsory. Sixth form boys could wear dark suits or a 'reasonable' sports jacket but had always to wear a tie. They were not allowed to grow facial hair other than sideboards, but could wear their hair to collar length (not shoulder length). Girls too did not have to wear school uniform but could wear skirt or dresses of a number of prescribed styles and a limited range of colours. They were allowed to wear makeup but not trousers.

Sixth formers took their lunch with other pupils but were exempt from the queue. They had to obtain permission to leave the premises at any time including the lunch hour. The daily assembly was compulsory except for those with religious exemption, and they registered in tutor groups at the beginning of the morning and afternoon sessions.

The rooms used exclusively for sixth form teaching also served as social rooms, where, unlike other pupils, sixth formers could stay in during the breaks. They could work or talk in these rooms but eating or drinking was not allowed, nor radio and record playing, except after school hours. Games were not compulsory; the alternative was supervised private study.

The balance of privileges and controls was not to most sixth formers' liking. Most felt that there were unnecessary restrictions and only a third felt they were being treated as adults. However, most of them disagreed with the proposition that the sixth form was too much like the rest of the school but agreed that it was isolated.

Prefects were chosen by the staff from the upper sixth; they and other sixth formers played an important part in the house system, used for intra-school competition, and as table monitors at lunch time. They were often the officers of school clubs and

societies; 29 per cent held responsibilities which brought them into contact with younger pupils.

Most sixth formers agreed that having responsibility for younger pupils was an important part of education, although there was some feeling that it interfered with their own work. Their acknowledgement of their being role-models is shown in the high level of agreement to the idea that the school expects them to set a good example . . . . Overall, they felt that both sixth formers and younger pupils gain from these relationships, with greater advantage to the latter . . . .

The majority of sixth formers (83 per cent) expected to continue their full-time education after leaving school, particularly at universities (45 per cent), polytechnics (24 per cent) or colleges of education (24 per cent).

As far as previous research and experience allows, the sixth form of St Trad's may be considered to be reasonably typical of many grammar schools in recent times: academically and university orientated, with responsibilities accepted with minor reservations, but with the granting of largely token privileges which do not offset what are felt to be unnecessary restrictions. Both the Arnoldian prototype and Frances Stevens' popular image of the sixth form are fairly clearly discernible.

Despite the declining number of maintained grammar schools this kind of sixth form has a double importance. First, it has formed the starting point of the newer forms of post-sixteen education, both literally during the course of reorganisation and as examples to be followed or rejected. Secondly, the survey of St Trad's, as representative of this genre, can be used in the comparison of the different forms of organisation for 16–19 year olds, and also in the comparison of the students' experience of these different forms.

(King, R.)[6]

2.3 The hallmark of the twentieth century academic tradition, as represented by the traditional grammar school, was a commitment to an academic curriculum by the progressive selection of pupils to take GCE A-level courses and their eventual entry into higher education. Associated with selection was a commitment to the preparation of sixth formers for leadership.

Figure 1 Speech day and prize-giving were important events in the traditional grammar schools, which concentrated on academic success and preparation for leadership.

2.4 Following the Education Act, 1944 two clear and separate paths lay before those continuing their education beyond school-leaving age. One path led from grammar schools, via the sixth form, to a university or other higher educational institution; the other led from the secondary modern school to full or part-time courses in the colleges. 'There was little liaison between establishments in the two sectors. They operated under different regulations, were staffed by teachers with different backgrounds and saw their functions as being distinct and separate'.[7]

2.5 In the 1960s, however, things began to change and overlap developed between the courses provided by the schools and those provided by the further education colleges, with the result that the academic tradition also came to be represented in the curricula of the further education colleges.

2.6 This overlap developed as a result of initiatives in both directions. Schools, as a consequence of the raising of the school-leaving age, CSE developments, link courses and the needs of the new sixth formers, developed a range of vocational or quasi-vocational courses. The colleges, following the introduction of the single-subject GCE, as opposed to the former school certificates in a group of subjects, have responded to the demands of those who wish to take O and A-levels, full or part-time, outside the schools.

2.7 Between 1966 and 1972, the number of students on full-time A-level courses in the colleges doubled and, by 1977, a third of all candidates taking A-levels came from further education institutions. This development was very much a new phenomenon for the 'Techs', as the colleges were then widely called. There were a number of research studies of the background of these new students and of their motives for wanting to study in a further education college what had previously been wholly seen as the preserve of the grammar school sixth form. Table 3 shows the backgrounds of 1,000, full-time, A-level students in colleges of further education in 1970, and the study from which this was drawn, and indeed all others, revealed a distinct pattern of motivation:

> More than two thirds stated they sought a more mature environment than they were offered at school. The scope of the curriculum set was also important. The wider choice of A-level subjects provided by the college was mentioned by a third of the sample and a further third had no A-level courses available to them at the school they had attended.
>
> (Dean and Choppin)[8]

TABLE 3 Backgrounds of a sample of full-time, A-level students in colleges of further education

Entering college from:	*Boys (%)*	*Girls (%)*
Independent schools	31	40
Grammar schools	24	29
Secondary modern schools	36	21
Other schools	9	10

A Schools Council's survey investigated 4,000 full-time students and reported:

> Students dissatisfied with the educational opportunities offered at school were found to be heavily concentrated on the GCE courses working at whatever level their school was unable to offer them. Those who had 'got to the end of what school had to offer' were found to be on all sorts of courses

with above average proportions on pre-nursing and child-care courses (32%), GCE O-levels (31%) and GCE O/A-levels (28%).

(Dean and Choppin)[9]

2.8 By the mid-1970s, therefore, school sixth forms and colleges were making a similar provision for GCE A-levels and certain other courses, so that there was duplication and competition for the same students. For these reasons, as well as additional social arguments, some LEAs sought to rationalize the total provision within a particular catchment area by introducing the tertiary college as a single institution to serve all sixteen to nineteen year olds.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

2.9 Despite the addition of academic courses, the colleges of further education were, in the late 70s, still very much concerned with vocational education: that is, equipping young people with knowledge relevent to industry and commerce. The development of vocational education is well explained in the following extracts from chapter 13 of *Inside the Colleges of Further Education* by Adrian Bristow. As you read these extracts, note what is said on the following:

(a) the distinction between what is education and what is skill training within vocational learning;

(b) the degree of importance accorded vocational education in British public educational policy;

(c) the diverse antecedants of the contemporary college of further education.

READING 2 How it all began

How did it all begin? For centuries before the industrial revolution craft training had been the province of the mediaeval guilds. The mysteries of the various crafts were passed on from master to apprentice by the method we call today 'sitting next to Nellie'. And this was sufficient until the industrial revolution and the growth of the factory system. The making of goods by hand began to be replaced by the making of goods by machinery and many workers became adjusters and supervisors of machines. There arose a hunger among adults for instruction, not only in the three Rs, but for instruction in the principles underlying workshop practice. This is why the early history of technical education in England is so entwined with adult education and with elementary and scientific education, constantly overlapping and with no fixed boundaries, the threads tangled, the pattern confused.

This desire for technical education was apparent at both ends of the social scale. Cultivated men, despairing of any contribution from the ancient universities and stirred by the industrial revolution in England and the social revolution in France, founded their own institutions like the Warrington Academy and Anderson's Institution (1796), which later became the Royal College of Science and Technology. It is easy to joke about Warrington with its Rugby League, beer, bingo and aroma of soap flakes, but its Academy had an international scientific reputation at the end of the eighteenth century and its lecturers had a great influence on educational development in the north-west. One of them for a while was none other than Marat, the French Revolutionary leader, though what he made of it I do not know. The Academy is still there – just. It stands desolate, decaying, riddled with dry rot. Go and pay your respects before it falls down.

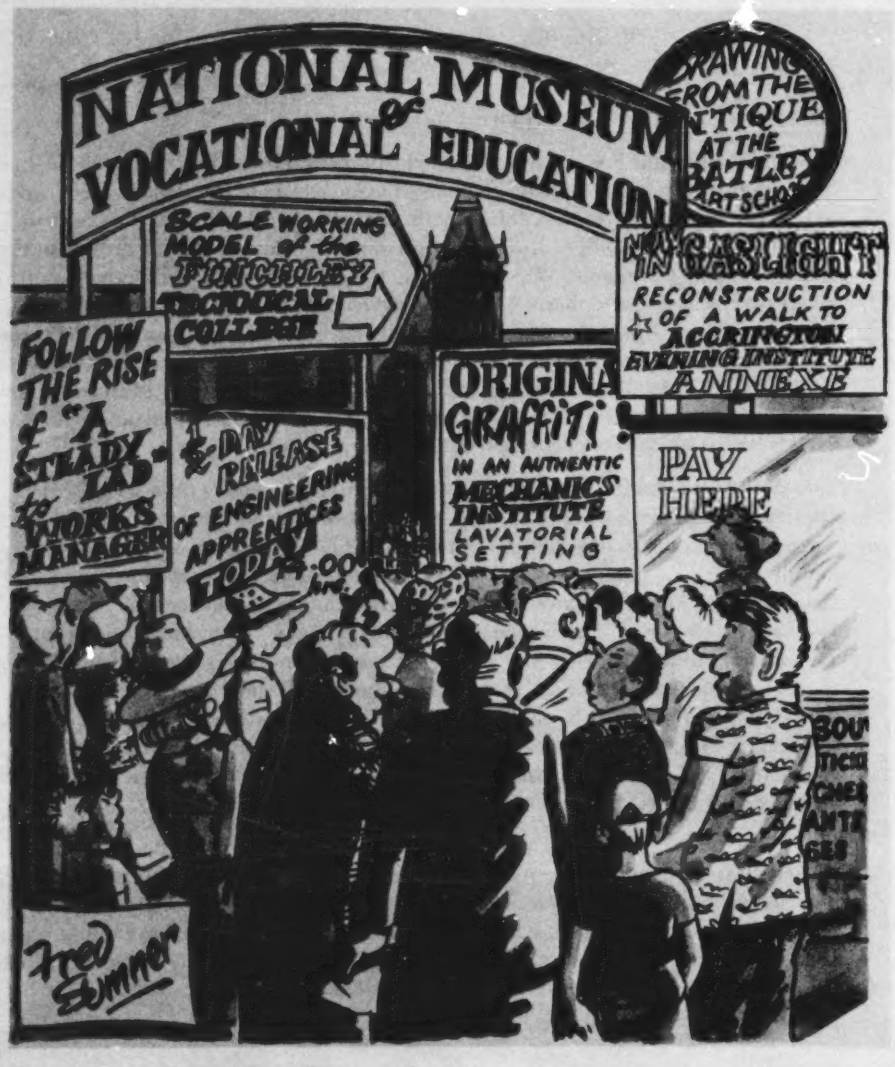
One of the early professors at Anderson's Institution was George Birkbeck. He started classes for working men and intelligent artisans who wished to gain some knowledge of the scientific principles underlying their crafts. These classes were the seed of the Mechanics Institute movement. George Birkbeck moved to London and in 1823 he founded a Mechanics Institution there – which eventually became Birkbeck

College. This was so successful that many large industrial cities like Manchester, Bradford, Birmingham and Sheffield soon followed suit. Although the middle class founders of these institutes had various motives, what attracted thousands of working men was simply the opportunity for self-improvement. So rapid was the development that by 1850 there were well over six hundred Institutes with a membership of over half a million.

Art was given an important place in the Mechanics Institutes because of its relation to industrial design. In addition, following the report of a Select Committee on Arts and Manufacturers in 1835, the Government set up special Schools of Design in London and the provinces. The School of Design in London eventually became the Royal College of Art while the seventeen provincial schools, developing for the most part independently of the Mechanics Institutes, were eventually absorbed into the national system of technical education. . . .

The dramatic growth of the Mechanics Institutes reflected this desire among the working class for simple technical education – for education of any sort, in fact. It is difficult for us to realise that at this time there was no national system of education. Elementary education for children was provided by the Church of England and other religious bodies but working men had to seize instruction wherever it was offered. This was often in the night schools run by men like Bartle Massey, the lame schoolmaster, so movingly described by George Eliot in *Adam Bede*. Most of these night schools were held in day school premises and the majority were run as private ventures by day school teachers. The chief supporters were artisans and factory hands paying an admission charge of 1d per week and upwards.

The work of the Mechanics Institutes, however, was hampered from the start by the lack of basic education among its members. This was one of the fatal flaws that led to


NATIONAL MUSEUM of VOCATIONAL EDUCATION
SCALE WORKING MODEL of the FINCHLEY TECHNICAL COLLEGE
FOLLOW THE RISE of "A STEADY LAD" to WORKS MANAGER
½ DAY RELEASE OF ENGINEERING APPRENTICES TODAY 14.00 hrs.
ORIGINAL GRAFFITI IN AN AUTHENTIC MECHANICS INSTITUTE LAVATORIAL SETTING
RECONSTRUCTION OF A WALK TO ACCRINGTON EVENING INSTITUTE ANNEXE
PAY HERE
Fred Sumner

the movement withering away. Another was that the original programmes, with their preoccupation with science, were a little too ambitious for even the skilled working men the Institutes hoped to attract. Thus they rapidly lost contact with their primary audience and most Institutes subsided into middle class organisations offering lectures of general scientific and literary interest.

A further blow was struck by the Public Libraries Act of 1850. Libraries were an attractive feature of the early Institutes. Where else in a growing industrial town was there access to a collection of books even remotely technical in nature – or access to books of any kind? The establishment of public libraries meant that information previously only available in the Mechanics Institute was now much more accessible and in a more up-to-date form. In some cases the new libraries took over the existing collection in the Institutes.

We are so used to the idea today that economic and technological progress can only be made if it is backed up by an adequate system of technical education, that it is remarkable to see the Victorian industrial juggernaut plunging inexorably forward without it. Manufacturers saw little point in providing anything other than training in workshop practice. Since theory could not be taught in a factory, they felt this was the responsibility of other agencies. Hence arose that unhappy division between training and education which has bedevilled technical education ever since.

Then in 1851 there occurred a phenomenon that was to have a profound effect upon the course of technical education. This was not apparent at the time but hindsight makes it a watershed in our educational history. The Great Exhibition in Hyde Park, a breath-taking display of art and crafts and manufactures, had the same galvanising effect on education in England that the Russian Sputnik had on mathematical and scientific education in the United States after 1957. It opened the eyes of many to the industrial progress being made in Europe and a few prophets connected this with their systems of education. Gradually we became aware that England herself, at the high noon of her industrial supremacy and sophistication, might well lose this position unless she established an underpinning of education. In fact, this is what did happen. Germany and the United States, although late into the field, made such rapid progress that by 1900 they had overhauled us in industrial capacity. And we, lulled by the languor of the long Edwardian afternoon, failed to realise this – until Ypres.

After 1851 there was a growing realisation that a country dependent upon the skills of its workforce in an increasingly competitive age could no longer tolerate a so-called educational system in which most working people received little or no schooling, and which left technical education to voluntary effort. At this time technical education provision was still restricted to Mechanics Institutes and the more advanced night schools. Although the Mechanics Institutes began to decline in importance during the second half of the century, the period 1850–1890 saw, both in London and the provinces, a swift, if uncoordinated, expansion of technical education in other forms, at differing levels, and under various auspices. But provision firmly remained evening-based.

The main impetus in technical education after the Great Exhibition was the newly created Department of Science and Art whose primary aim was the promotion of the applied sciences. From 1859 it fostered this cause by making grants to establish 'science' classes and by setting up an annual examination system under which teachers received a bonus according to their results – the famous 'payment by results' scheme. Scrupulously avoiding teaching crafts or trades, the classes tended to be theoretical in content. . . .

During this period an important contribution was made to a rather tangled skein by the examining bodies.

The Royal Society of Arts, for example, was originally founded in 1754 for 'the encouragement of Arts, Manufacture and Commerce'. After its foundation it appears to have rested for a hundred years before suddenly springing into life in 1852. It formed a national union of mechanics institutions and from 1856 it began to organise examinations in science and commerce, although after 1882 it concentrated on commercial subjects. It was thus following in the footsteps of one of the most venerable of the present regional examining unions, the Union of Lancashire and

Cheshire Institutes – a title as famous as Manchester United in the north-west but quite unintelligible elsewhere. The Union of Lancashire and Cheshire Institutes was started in 1839 as a union of mechanics institutes. It was not the first because that proud title belongs to the West Riding, but both these unions developed into regional examining bodies over the years, working very closely with that best known body of all, the City and Guilds of London Institute.

The Companies of the City of London feeling, like so many other private and public bodies the need to raise the standard of technical education, started making grants for this purpose in 1869. In 1878 the City and Guilds of London Institute for the Advancement of Technical Education was founded with the aim 'of educating young artisans and others in the scientific and artistic branches of their trades'. The City and Guilds, as they are usually called, forged ahead and established courses of study and examinations for a wide variety of crafts. Now they are the nationally recognised body for craft and technician examinations ranging over some three hundred subjects and they wield much influence, usually for good, throughout the world of technical education, both at home and overseas. Their special value is that they provide a means whereby industries can develop and adopt, on a national basis, schemes of further education which are integral parts of apprenticeship and training programmes.

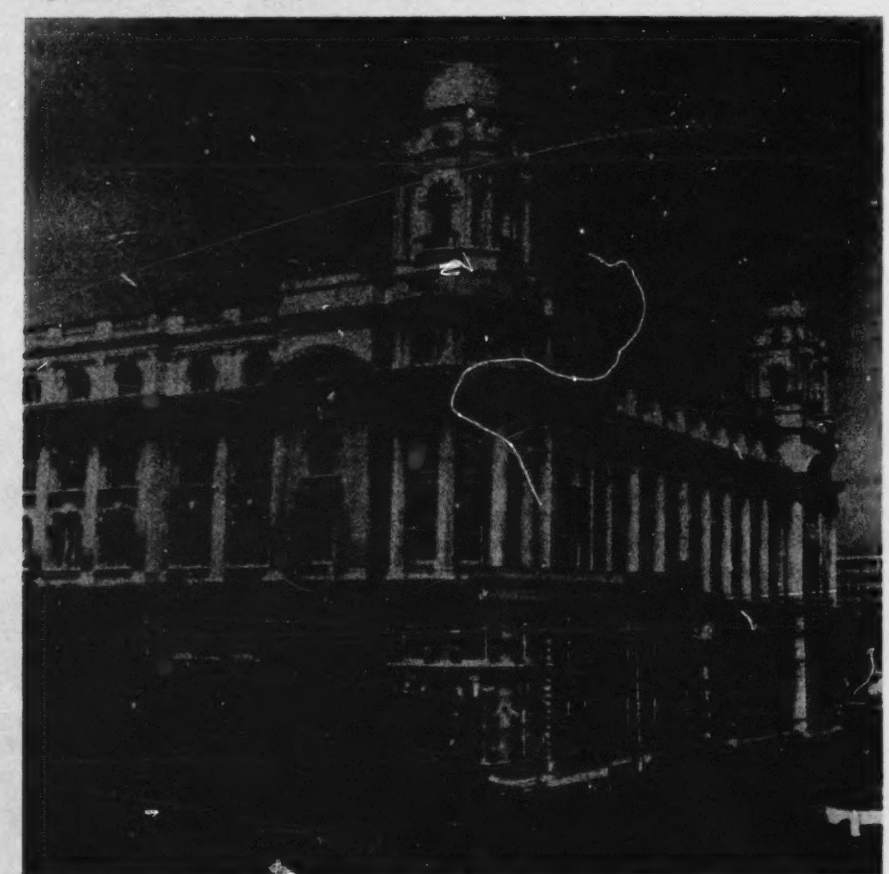
Figure 2 Birmingham Technical School, founded in 1895, illustrates the grand style of brick building that housed early provision for technical and vocational education – a typical 'Victorian tech'!

The City and Guilds also had a teaching function. It started its own institution in 1885 which eventually became one of the three constituent colleges of the Imperial College of Science and Technology. It also founded the Finchley Technical College to provide day and evening courses in science and engineering and Finchley became a model for the technical colleges of the future. The opportunity to study technical subjects during the day was something of a novelty. This was the beginning proper of our system of day-release although its origins can be traced to the early Factory Acts and works schools. It is interesting to note that Finchley, accepting the now traditional view, continued to concentrate on teaching theory and principles with little emphasis on workshop practice.

Meanwhile, you may ask, what had happened to the Mechanics Institutes? These continued to flourish after 1850, reaching the height of their success about 1860, but, as we have seen, the seeds of their decline were already present. Moreover, the Mechanics Institutes, which for years had performed various functions such as technical and art education, continued elementary education, and library provision, found these more and more assumed by the local authorities. In many cases, the new county and county borough councils simply took over the work and premises of the Institutes and this was the origin of many of our oldest technical colleges and technological universities. The rump of the Institutes lingered on into the twentieth century, acting mainly as social clubs, before slowly disappearing. They were the progenitors of technical education and they left behind them a splendid legacy.

In 1867 there was another important exhibition, this time in Paris. The concern that had been voiced by a few in 1851 about the slow progress of technical education in England became more general as a result of the poor showing of the British exhibits there, and disenchantment gave a fresh stimulus to the development of a state system. The establishment of a Select Committee and two Royal Commissions led to Lord Salisbury's government passing the Technical Instruction Act in 1889. This

Figure 3 Belfast College of Technology, a post-Victorian tech.



empowered the recently formed county councils to raise a penny rate to promote 'technical and manual instruction' by founding schools and making grants to existing bodies. This expenditure of public funds on technical education, exercised by Technical Instruction Committees, marks the beginning of local as opposed to national responsibility for FE. Once again it was expressly stated that the curriculum should not include the practice of any trade or industry. This attitude contrasts sharply with that on the Continent where the importance of workshop practice in similar schools was emphasised. . . .

. . . The 1889 Act was really a very modest beginning. A year later, however, there came a sudden windfall in the shape of surplus funds from the Customs and Excise Duties, originally intended to compensate publicans who had lost their licenses under the government's plan to reduce the number of public houses. The government made this whisky money, as the wags called it, over to the county councils to spend on technical education. These two measures gave an impetus to the growth of technical education as intoxicating as Forster's Act of 1870 had given to elementary education.

There was a rush of blood to the head and to build new colleges. A number of splendid buildings in best Accrington brick went up in key centres in Lancashire, and Yorkshire and the south followed suit. Many of these – Burnley is a good example – with their stained glass windows featuring allegorical figures of industry and science (female, overbosomed, underclad, wearing helmets), their imposing porticos, and their splendid tiles, reflect the pride and confidence of the local citizens in a vision of a kind of education that did not come to pass for another sixty years. But by 1902, when the whisky money ran out, the country's system of technical education was well under way.

This spate of new buildings was accompanied by the rise of the polytechnics. The original polytechnic in Regent Street was founded by Quintin Hogg in 1882. This was so successful that others were established in London under the City Parochial Charities Act of 1883: Battersea, Chelsea, Northern, and Borough in London and the Sir John Cass College and the Northampton Polytechnic in the City itself. Their courses ranged from trade classes to postgraduate work and within a few years they became the most important institutions providing education for industry.

With all this happening much was expected from the Education Act of 1902. This set up local education authorities and gave them responsibility not only for primary and secondary education but also for higher and technical education. But it soon became obvious that the main emphasis was to be placed on developing the secondary sector through the new grammar schools and improving the old elementary schools and that there was going to be precious little left over for technical education. Yet there were two developments.

The Act gave a further fillip to the expansion of the evening continuation schools (later to be called evening institutes) which had grown up rapidly during the 'nineties, and, more important, it led to the establishment of senior and junior technical schools. The latter were not really secondary schools but rather schools designed to fill the gap between the school leaving age and the age of apprenticeship (16) by providing an education for boys wishing to enter a particular industry, usually engineering. They offered a fairly narrow technical curriculum revolving round mathematics, science and drawing with some workshop practice. Many of the 'JTSs' as they came to be called were organised as part of the larger existing senior technical schools and technical colleges, sharing their premises and using their staff. Other JTSs had their own buildings and ran their own evening classes (the headmaster of the JTS was in charge of the evening institute) and in the fullness of time evolved into technical colleges and colleges of further education. They were never very numerous, thanks to our national prejudice against vocational education, and there are none left now but they made a powerful contribution to technical education. They tended to serve a small, well-defined area and for years they turned out a stream of competent and steady lads who found ready employment in local industry. Most of these boys attended evening classes after they left and eventually became the skilled craftsmen, foremen, works managers and in some cases the directors of local firms. . . .

The early years of the century also saw some development in day-release with apprentices being allowed time off during the day to attend part-time courses at

technical schools and colleges. But the full-time courses at these establishments continued to attract relatively few students.

Much was expected from Fisher's Education Act of 1918. Strange how war focuses attention on education and triggers off advances; it did so again in 1944. This measure sought to raise the school leaving age to 15 and to make attendance at continuation schools for one day per week compulsory for all young people between the ages of 14 and 18. This was nearly sixty years ago! The school leaving age was not raised to 15 until 1947 and compulsory day-release until 18 seems as far off as ever. It is little wonder that Fisher's far-sighted Act met with scant success. As soon as amendments made attendance at a continuation school voluntary, his scheme collapsed and only one authority (Rugby) implemented it.

Thus, soon after the First World War an unhappy pattern of technical education established itself, very different from the hopes and aspirations aroused by the progress of the 'nineties. It was predominantly part-time in character, and although the number of day-release students did increase somewhat, too few firms were either far-sighted enough to realise the value of a trained labour force or sufficiently generous to give their young employees time off during the day to attend the local college. Evening classes ('night school') held in technical institutions crystallised as the only real opportunity for technical education for ambitious boys in engineering and building.

The pattern was consolidated by the introduction in 1921 of the national certificate system. This was a significant step because for the first time professional institutions, the Board of Education, and the colleges became involved in providing a relatively high qualification, through part-time study, for engineers working in industry. There were two levels: ordinary national and higher national. Ordinary national certificate took three years and higher national certificate two years. For full-time students there were similar courses known as diploma courses but these tended to be few and far between. The first scheme for a national certificate in mechanical engineering was followed by others in chemistry, naval architecture, and electrical engineering and later on by ones in building, commerce, textiles, and civil and production engineering. These certificates gave a truly national technical qualification and one that included both theory and practice.

For most students 'getting their national' meant grinding away three evenings a week, not merely for three years but often for four or five because many found themselves unable to pass the various stages at the first attempt. And if they obtained their national, there was, for the able and ambitious, the lure of the higher national, and another two or sometimes three years of further part-time study. This was a long, hard road to professional status but it was a road that thousands successfully travelled for forty years even though it made young men old before their time. In recent years the natural desire of the professional institutions to raise the status of the engineer in England, the increasing complexity and specialisation in the industry, plus the availability of full-time degree courses, has led to this part-time route being virtually closed.

The national certificate system remained the corner-stone of technical education between the Wars. Elsewhere progress was slow. The industrial situation in the 1930s was hardly conducive to the extension of day-release and for most youngsters in industry evening classes in mathematics, science and drawing were still their only salvation. It is salutary and embarrassing to realise that even as recently as 1937–8 there were only some 20,000 full-time and some 89,000 part-time students in further education. You may feel this is some advance on the meagre figures of thirty years before but the numbers bore little relation to the paramount importance of industry, the size of the work force, and the need for training. Not that industry was particular training-conscious at that time, or at any time, until it was finally and rudely brought face to face with reality by the Industrial Training Act. Industrial progress and technical education are inextricably interwoven. A prosperous and developing economy requires a vigorous and responsive base of technological education.

There was little building after 1918 until the late 'thirties when several new colleges appeared. They were designed, naturally enough, to fit in with the post-war technical pattern. By day they were used by junior technical schools or junior commercial schools and for part-time day classes, and in the evenings as 'night schools'. But help

was on its way. Butler's 1944 Education Act was responsible for the tripartite system and the creation of technical high schools although few of these were developed. The JTSs continued for a while but were gradually absorbed into the bilateral and comprehensive schools and had almost disappeared by the early 'sixties.

The Act, however, did have far-reaching effects on further education. Until 1944 local education authorities had had the power to provide technical education as part of higher education but, as you might expect, some exercised it more than others. Encouraging noises were obviously not enough and for the first time a statutory duty was imposed on local education authorities, as follows: 'It shall be the duty of every local education authority to secure the provision for their area of adequate facilities for further education, that is to say, full-time and part-time education for persons over compulsory school age'.

This should have been the green light, but as far as further education was concerned, the lights obstinately remained at amber in the immediate post-war years. The government's first duty through the new Ministry of Education was to repair the ravages of the war, and money and effort were directed towards a massive programme of primary and secondary school building. Even so there was a striking increase in the number of students being given day-release. By 1955 there were nearly five times as many day-release students in attendance as there were in 1938 and the number of full-time students had more than trebled. This put a tremendous strain on accommodation. There were few colleges which did not have a variety of 'annexes'. Church halls, huts, old schools, even warehouses and crypts were pressed into service in an effort to cope with the demand. Insanitary and unwholesome annexes are one of the recognised ways of getting new premises. A wily principal always tries to keep some obnoxious building up his sleeve – you never know when it may come in useful as a debating point or a bargaining counter. At last, however, it was the turn of further education and the boom period of technical college expansion started with the title of 'College of Further Education' beginning to impinge upon a baffled public.

Once more came a widespread demand for technical education and, spurred on by the Government White Paper of 1956, expansion continued unabated. Again there came one of our periodic outbursts when those in power are startled into activity by an overwhelming consciousness of the need to make proper provision for technical education. There was, I think, as in the period after 1870, a sudden national concern that unless we quickly geared our technical education to the needs of the post-war world then we should be outstripped in a fiercely competitive battle for world markets. In a few swift years the ugly duckling of the 'thirties was metamorphosed into the glamorous swan of the 'fifties.

In 1957 we had certain large technical colleges designated as colleges of advanced technology (CATS) for advanced and postgraduate work and research; they subsequently became technological universities and left the fold. In 1961 another Government White Paper, *Better Opportunities in Further Education*, attempted to relate our courses more closely to the needs of industry. It introduced technician courses, revisions to the ordinary national certificate courses, a new scheme of craft courses and other reforms and refinements.

The combined effect of the White Papers of 1956 and 1961 was to kill off 'night school' with all its unsavour implications. The steady increase in day-release enabled the traditional structure of evening classes to be dismantled thus ending the most enduring and unattractive feature of technical education.

During the early 'sixties it seemed that the demands for full-time higher education within FE would increase by leaps and bounds for as far ahead as anyone cared to look. At the same time there was an obvious need in the interests of both economy and efficiency to concentrate these courses in large institutions. The government therefore decided to develop and extend higher education in the technical colleges alongside the universities – this became known as the binary system.

In the 1966 White Paper, *A Plan for Polytechnics and other Colleges*, about seventy major colleges of technology, art and commerce were picked by the DES to form thirty polytechnics in strategic parts of the country 'as the main centres for the future development of full-time higher education within the further education system'. The new polytechnics were intended to complement the universities and colleges of

education and the government looked to the chosen few for 'an equally distinguished and separate contribution'.

Like the colleges from which they sprang, the polytechnics are closely linked, in spirit and in function, to the world of industry, business and the professions. . . .

One more major upheaval, the effects of which are far from clear at the moment, needs to be recorded. In 1973, the DES, alarmed at the over-production of teachers, decided to cut back the number of training places in colleges of education. It proposed to use the spare capacity to diversify their work and also, by linking certain colleges with nearby FE ones to form new high-level (but non-polytechnic) institutions. As I write, over twenty large FE colleges are busy amalgamating with colleges of education.

This is another example of the way in which, since the war, FE has generated a stream of high-level institutions based on need and demand, only to see the structure decapitated. We have seen our colleges transmogrified into CATS (1957), into polytechnics (1966), and now into these hybrids. FE is like the dreaded Hydra; so vigorous and resilient is it that no sooner do you cut off its head than another grows in its place.

During the last decade a spate of White Papers and reports, a torrent of bulletins and memoranda, have continued to pour down upon our inoffensive heads. Committees have been set up to look into this and advise upon that; recommendations and reports have landed on our desks with sickening thumps at ever-decreasing intervals. I suppose this is a small price to pay for what has been called the 'FE explosion'. This is a worn-out phrase now but it aptly describes the hugh increase in demand at all levels, especially for full-time courses, and the immense sums spent on buildings and equipment to match it.

(Bristow, A.)[10]

2.10 The vocational curriculum is still overwhelmingly associated with one particular type of institution – the further education college. Nevertheless, as you will already know from Unit 11, some schools have sought to introduce or link the rudiments of a vocational provision into their curriculum. Also, there is the beginning of a national policy, which I shall describe later, that is concerned to encourage vocational foundation studies in schools, as well as in the colleges.

INDUSTRIAL TRAINING

2.11 Reading 2 explained how the distinction between vocational education and industrial training arose – a distinction which kept vocational education within the educational service and industrial training outside it. In terms of curricular practice, this distinction meant that the trainee carpenter and joiner, for example, learnt the theory and calculations of their subject as part of further education in the college and the skill or practical aspects of the subject at work. This distinction applied across the whole gamut of crafts and trades (see Table 4).

TABLE 4 Vocational education and trade training

Vocational education	*Trade training*
Skills you can learn entirely in an FE college:	Skills you cannot learn wholly within an FE college:
Typewriting	Capstan lathe operating
Beauty therapy	Hairdressing
Silver smithing	Plumbing
Industrial photography	Motor vehicle repair
Film making	Welding

2.12 Table 4, under the heading of vocational education, I have given examples of skills that can be learnt entirely within the public provision for further education and can be subsequently put in practice without the necessity of additional training on the job for the conferment of qualified status. Under trade training, Table 4 lists some examples of the many skills in which a student can not qualify to practise without the necessity of a substantial period of on the job industrial training. This component of industrial training is quite separate from the further education part of the total training that is undertaken in college. Bristow explained how this distinction originated with the medieval craft guilds and how it was later to demarcate public vocational educational policy from industry's private policy in the training of trade or workshop practice.

'Young lad from the Guild here, Master — says he's been sent on a link course.'

2.13 When policy boundaries are set by tradition, some oddities arise. For example, to learn to be a capstan lathe operator, a man would have had to learn the quite sophisticated skills involved either in industry or a government training centre, but not in a college. To learn typewriting, his wife could have gone to the college, because this subject is one that post-dates the period when the division between education and training was established. History has therefore made the distinction between vocational education and trade training arbitrary and, in some cases, incongruous.

2.14 Since 1964, however, this long-standing separation of education and training has been progressively diminished by the effects of an increasing involvement in training policy by central government. You need to understand the chief elements of central government's increasing involvement in training and this can be discussed in terms of three stages: (a) pre-1964; (b) from the Industrial Training Act, 1964, to 1974; and (c) post-1974.

INDUSTRIAL TRAINING BEFORE 1964

2.15 During this period, training was left almost wholly to industry. Central government's role was confined to running a number of training centres, which produced trade instructors for government establishments and trained a relatively small number of government-sponsored candidates to enter industry. There was no industrial training done in the colleges at this time, nor was any joint policy determined among the departments of government responsible for education, employment and training.

Figure 4 After the Industrial Training Act of 1964, many colleges provided courses that, for the first time, integrated vocational education with training in specific skills.

INDUSTRIAL TRAINING 1964–74

2.16 Up to the passing of the Industrial Training Act of 1964, the government and the colleges played little part in training workers in industry and commerce. Vocational training had been financed and undertaken as an in-company activity by employers for their own needs. It was considered that employers had been making such a bad job of training their work force that the government intervened, at first by setting up government training centres and then by comprehensive legislation. Under the 1964 act, industrial training boards were set up under the Department of Employment, to be responsible for the quality and quantity of training within particular industries. One of the main problems before the act was that firms were unwilling to invest in expensive training of their workers if they could be poached by another firm as soon as they were trained. The act therefore devised a way of sharing costs more evenly between firms. The boards made a levy on the firms in their particular industry, based on the number of people employed; small firms were generally granted exemption. The amount varied depending on the particular industrial training board but, as an example, the Engineering Industrial Training Board levied 2.5 per cent of a company's wage bill. Firms then claimed back the costs of training their employees who had undertaken courses approved by the boards. These courses took place in further education colleges, in industrial training centres, within companies or in training centres set up by the boards themselves. Firms which did not send their employees for training were penalized in that they still had to pay the levy and, in practice, some firms simply regarded this as an extra tax and did not fulfill the expectations of the act.

2.17 Between 1964 and 1974 the overall effects of the Industrial Training Act on the colleges of further education were important and dramatic. First, in order to meet the industrial training needs, colleges had to reorganize their running so that they could operate over forty-eight weeks in a year.* Secondly, they developed, in partnership with the industrial training boards, a range of integrated courses which combined traditional further education with training in specific skills, so that industrial training, as such, came to be provided for the first time in the colleges during this period.

INDUSTRIAL TRAINING SINCE 1974

2.18 In 1974, following government appraisal of the working of the Industrial Training Act, a major new national policy was introduced with the development of national training services under the auspicies of the Manpower Services Commission, a body responsible to the Department of Employment and, in Wales and Scotland, which have separate committees, to the respective Secretaries of State. An outline of the commissions organization in 1978 is shown in Figure 5.

2.19 By 1978, the Manpower Services Commission had charted a national training policy in terms of five programmes of action:

(a) to help meet the training needs of industry;

(b) to help meet the training needs of individuals;

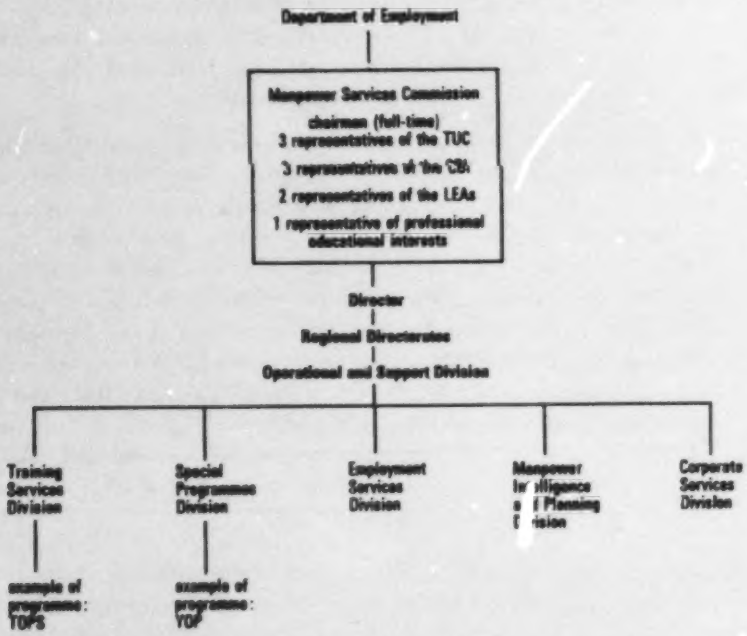
(c) to support the development of a national training system;

(d) to help to meet training needs of special national priority;

(e) developing the efficiency of the training service.

*In 1978 it was estimated that about half of all nonadvanced FE colleges made some provision over a period of forty-eight weeks in a year.

Figure 5 An outline of the MSC's organization in 1978.



YOP stands for Youth Opportunities Programme. This is a scheme for unemployed young people.

TOPS stands for Training Opportunities Scheme. This is a scheme whereby an adult may be retrained in a skill in which there are definite employment prospects.

2.20 From the point of view of the colleges, programme (a) continued and expanded the earlier policies of the industrial training boards, while programme (b) represented a new development, whereby in the TOPS scheme, it was recognized that there was a need to have a national policy for individuals to retrain in skills in which there was a national need and employment opportunities.

2.21 The most important new policy development by 1978 – the Unified Vocational Preparation scheme – represented the type of programme listed under (d) above. The scheme was introduced by the government in 1976 as a matter of national priority and was concerned with the vocational preparation of young people who leave school for jobs which offer little or no further education or training.* An important part of the scheme was the joining of further education and training into a unified vocational programme of courses. This coming together at the curricular level had its counterpart in terms of overall control, for the new unified courses were to be jointly managed by the DES and the Training Services Division of the Manpower Services Commission. The formal linking of the previously separated education and training interests had been initiated by the DES and the Manpower Services Commission in 1976 with the establishment of the Training and Further Education Consultative Group.[11]

2.22 During 1977, the government set up the Further Education Review and Development Unit, financed and housed by the DES, yet independent in policy formulation. The first priority it determined was to collaborate in the development of courses of vocational preparation.[12]

2.23 Thus, the whole matter of vocational preparation, including the linking of education and training, became an important part of the wider debate on

*In April 1978, the government announced that the experimental UVP scheme would be continued until 1981.

provision for the sixteen to nineteen year olds in the late 1970s. Alongside this, the Manpower Services Commission itself sought to distinguish between those who traditionally received some training (the apprentices) and those who did not receive training on any systematic basis at all. For both categories its Training Services Division had this to say:

> The group which goes into long-term training includes those taking traditional apprenticeships. *We are saying, in essence, that if we are to have a high and stable supply of well qualified young people in this category then the cost of the first year unified education and training ought to be removed from the direct charge of the employer and be met out of a collective fund, contributed to by both employers and government.* This would mark a significant change in the way young people move from school to work in that particular area of employment. For the second group, the 300,000 youngsters who do not get any training or very little training from their employers at the moment, we have come to the same basic conclusion – that any significant progress can only be made if their early vocational preparation can be collectively funded in such a way that the individual employer does not have to finance it.
>
> (Hayes, F. C.)[13]

Encapsulated in the above quotation, and in the direction of this policy as a whole, was a quite dramatic change in the position of central government towards funding and providing training. Previously, training was something paid for and provided by industry. Now, central government was to do a lot of the paying and to be responsible for securing and supervizing the national training provision, within which industry itself would still provide the bulk of all training, though it would be coordinated with the growing range of government-backed courses. In summary, this whole new training concept affected the sixteen to nineteen year olds in two main respects: (a) the transition from school to work; and (b) the development of programmes of training both for employed and unemployed young people.

2.24 The transition from schooling to the adult world of work has always been one of significance. It was, in the past, in most societies, marked by formal *rites de passage*. In complex societies, where there is a long period of institutional schooling preceding a routing into occupational and status roles, the point of transfer becomes not only significant, but problematic. Until recently, in this country, the routing system was more predictable. Independent schools prepared students for early transfer into high-status occupations, often via further selective institutions. Middle and lower-status white-collar jobs were served by the output from local grammar schools and the labouring work force was drawn from the elementary schools. The greatest problem was always to pick out and train the skilled craftsman and, in this respect, the selective routing mechanism was most unpredictable, as an historical survey of apprenticeship training and technical education would show.*

2.25 At the time of writing this unit, the concern of central government with the transition from school to work and training for the young had expressed itself in:

(a) unified vocational schemes for those in employment, already discussed above; and

(b) the Youth Opportunities Programme for those not in employment.

2.26 1977 saw a major piece of policy in the whole area of the transition from school to work. Following the Holland report, the government committed

*For example, in 1978, the Engineering Industry Training Board estimated that, in order to maintain the inflow of craft apprentices required by industry, 21,000 young people per annum would require training on a one-year [illegible]ue, off-the-job basis.

TABLE 5 Youth Opportunities Programme: summary of schemes available[14]

Type of opportunity	Name of scheme	Objective	Duration	Provider and location	Progression
Courses to train and prepare young people for work	Assessment and employment induction courses	Improve young people's employability by assessing work they are most suited for and interested in, improving their knowledge of the world of work, and improving basic social skills	Most 2 weeks	Mainly employers' establishments Also TSD skillcentres and colleges of further education	Some to normal employment. Most to basic skill courses. Some to a work experience opportunity. A few to further education
	Short industrial courses	Training for a specific, though broad, occupational area up to operator or semi-skilled level	About 13 weeks	TSD skillcentres, colleges of further education, employers establishments	Many to normal employment. Some to further education or a work experience opportunity
	Remedial and preparatory courses	Participants should reach basic levels of literacy and numeracy and basic entry requirements for other opportunities	As long as necessary for individual to achieve objective	Colleges of further education special schools Residential training colleges	Most to other opportunities in programme A few to normal employment
Work experience	Employers' premises	To give first hand experience of different kinds of work on employers' premises	On average 6 months	Employers' premises	Many to normal employment. Others to work preparation course or further education
	Project-based	To give first hand experience of different kinds of work through the medium of projects	6–12 months	Various sponsors including local authorities, voluntary organizations etc	Most to normal employment. Others to work preparation course or further education
	Training workshop	To give first hand experience of different kinds of work in a work group producing goods or services	6–12 months	Various sponsors as above, using vacant factories and other premises or sites	Many to normal employment
	Community service	To give first hand experience of different kinds of work through the medium of local community activities	6–12 months	Social services voluntary organizations. Specific community projects	Most to normal employment. Others to work preparation courses or further education

itself to a major policy of expenditure to meet the needs of unemployed young people in the Youth Opportunities Programme, which came into operation on 1 April 1978. In total, the commitment amounted to the provision of an extra 10,000 nonadvanced, further education places by 1981–2, with an overall programme which would offer work preparation courses and work experience to about a quarter of a million young people a year. The programme was under the aegis of the Special Programmes Division of the Manpower Services Commission and operated through a network of twenty-eight area boards, covering LEAs, employers, trade unions and voluntary organizations. The scope of the Youth Opportunities Programme is shown in Table 5. The Manpower Services Commission assumed that 70 per cent of the provision would be in colleges of further education. An agency external to the educational service, as such, was therefore developing an important role in creating training opportunities for the sixteen to nineteen year olds within the colleges of further education.

2.27 In paragraphs 2.11 to 2.26, above, I have tried to show two things. First, that industrial training before 1964 was a quite separate area of policy and provision from the public provision of academic or vocational education. Secondly, that there was, by the end of the seventies, a large and still growing central government role in industrial training which was, in its Unified Vocational Preparation and Youth Opportunities Programme, making a significant contribution to the wider further education of young people aged sixteen to nineteen. The net effects of these developments were:

(a) to bring more and more into the colleges of further education a type of student and a range of courses not previously catered for;

(b) to make the colleges much more concerned than previously with preparation for work, rather than in preparation for those taking courses complementary to a work objective;

(c) to link training in skills with vocational and general education.

Figure 6 By the late 1970s, government policy had brought more young people into the colleges and linked industrial training with vocational and general education. These gas fitters, on a four-week block-release course, are recording plays they have written in groups during their spare time.

2.28 I have outlined in general terms the curricular influences which bear on the provisions for the sixteen to nineteen year olds. The balance to be provided in the total curriculum for this age group, between academic education, vocational education, industrial training and work preparation, is clearly a major area of policy concern. So too is the form of institutional organization that can best meet their curricular needs. In the next section, I shall describe the range of institutions that have given expression to the curricular traditions described above.

Activity 1 Read the following statement and then write down your answer to the question posed.

> 'The elements of the curriculum for sixteen to nineteen year olds were in a state of considerable flux in the late 1970s and exhibited a quite dramatic change from the stable picture they had presented for many decades.'

Explain the facts behind this statement and show clearly why the situation was so fluid.

Compare your answer with the author's comments in Appendix 1.

You should spend about fifteen minutes on this activity.

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3 The institutional arrangements

THE SCHOOL SIXTH FORM

3.1 The set reading in paragraph 2.2 described the traditional sixth form as it still existed in a grammar school – St Trads – in the early 1970s. A grammar school was distinguished by an almost total commitment to the preparation of pupils for entry into higher educational institutions, and by leadership roles for its sixth-form pupils in the overall life of their school. In the comprehensive schools, however, the sixth form is a combination of the 'traditional sixth' with what has been described as the 'new sixth'. In preparing this unit, I wrote to a number of large comprehensive schools for details of their sixth form provision.* The position in 1976–7 is summarized in Tables 6–8.

3.2 Table 6 shows the curriculum of the first-year sixth in twenty-five comprehensive schools in 1977. The academic or 'St Trads' curriculum, stemming from the grammar schools, is still predominant in that GCE A-level courses account for some 60 per cent of the total curriculum provision; five of the schools had only A-level courses for sixth formers. As regards the range and type of A-level courses shown in Table 8, the continuance of the academic tradition in terms of arts, pure science and mathematics is clearly evident, as is the minority position of crafts and applied science and technology. The very low position of modern languages, reflects the historic lack of importance accorded languages in Britain, which has not yet been modified by our changed world role and European connection.

*In the sample of twenty-five schools, there were four Group 13, ten Group 12, seven Group 11, and four Group 10 schools. A Group 12 school would have over 1500 pupils.

TABLE 6 Type of courses offered in the first-year sixth forms

Type of Course	*Number of pupil–courses**	*Percentage of total courses*
GCE A-level	3,293	59
GCE O-level and alternative 'O'	1,494	27
CEE	620	11
CSE	59	1
Linked courses with FE colleges	109	2
Total	5,575	100

TABLE 7 Size factors for the first-year sixth forms

Total number of pupils	1,713
Average size of first-year sixth	71
Average size of A-level subject unit	9
Percentage of A-level subject groups with five pupils or less	35
Maximum number of A-level courses provided	21
Minimum number of A-level courses provided	9
Average number of A-level courses provided	14

3.3 Table 6 also demonstrates the extent to which many sixth formers are concerned with other than A-level courses. These are the nontraditional or so called 'new sixth formers' and they were described as early as 1970 in a Schools Council report:

> These nontraditional sixth formers comprised a quarter of all first-year sixth formers . . . most of them were following GCE O-level or CSE courses, or vocational courses leading to a recognized examination. Some were retaking subjects they sat in the fifth form or were trying to add passes in one or two new subjects. In some schools it had become the practice to 'convert' CSE passes into O-level passes.
>
> (Dean and Choppin)[15]

3.4 A second point to note, from Table 7, is the average size of the first-year sixth form and the average number of pupils taking particular subjects. The size of the teaching unit in sixth forms has come under close scrutiny in recent times. In 1976, the DES stated that 59 per cent of all sixth forms in schools had 100 or fewer pupils, 40 per cent had less than 50 pupils and the average class size was 8.7. The DES also drew attention to the economic implications:

> . . . at a time of economic and financial restraint, provision of courses for 16–19 year olds was one of the areas where some savings could be made, or where wastage could be cut back, particularly where duplication of courses was concerned; and where there was a large number of very small teaching units. Some rationalization is inevitable, but it should not lead to a restriction of opportunity for the individual student.
>
> (Dyke, E.)[16]

*The 'number of pupil–courses' is arrived at by aggregating the number of pupils studying each subject offered. The term is used to account for the fact that pupils take courses in more than one subject.

TABLE 8 A-level courses taken by first-year sixth-form pupils

Category	*Subject*	*Number of pupils*	*Number of pupil–courses in each category*	*Category percentage of total*
Arts	English	418		
	History	279		24
	Music	37		
	Scripture	50		
			784	
Languages	French	168		
	German	69		
	Spanish	12		8
	Russian	6		
	Latin	10		
			265	
Social sciences	Economics	268		
	Geography	216		
	Sociology	70		17
	Government/ politics	11		
	Law	8		
			573	
Pure science	Biology*	310		
	Physics	308		28
	Chemistry	305		
			923	
Mathematics	All mathematics A-levels	455		14
			455	
Art and crafts	Home economics	85		
	Art	102		7
	Design	26		
	Metalwork	3		
			216	
Applied science technology	Geology	33		
	Engineering drawing	22		
	Engineering design	14		2
	Computer science	4		
	Accounts	4		
			77	
Totals	27		3,293	100

*Includes human biology and social biology.

3.5 In the late 1970s, the implications of a steeply falling birthrate were also brought into the discussion. Some commentators were projecting that the sharply reduced sizes of the school age groups would have worked through into the sixteen to nineteen year olds by 1982. After this time, many all-through comprehensive schools might well be hard pressed to provide a viable range of courses in their sixth forms, even within the traditional boundaries. The viability of school sixth forms is therefore very much part of the wider debate and especially that part of it concerned with the best policy on institutional arrangements. The main question raised here is whether, in order to ensure the most rational and economic provision for sixteen to nineteen year olds, there should be a break for all pupils at sixteen and their education continued in separate institutions, such as a sixth-form college or a tertiary college.

3.6 It was also questioned whether the sort of courses the new sixth formers were taking (CSE and O-levels) were the most appropriate to their age group and whether these pupils would not be better served, or the country better served by them, were they to be taking courses of equivalent standard, but in specialized vocational subjects more directly linked to job opportunities. You will recall that this point was put rather more bluntly in the first quotation in paragraph 1.2. There the suggestion was made that watered-down academic courses might not be the most appropriate curricular provision for some of the new sixth formers. By 1978, some schools were meeting this type of criticism by providing City and Guilds foundation courses, though this type of course was unrepresented in our sample survey summarized in Table 6.

'VI Form or otherwise, Pidduck, I told you not to ignore the rule about facial hair.'

3.7 The City and Guilds foundation courses are available to both schools and further education colleges. They are intended to meet the needs of sixteen year olds of average ability. There are foundation courses in construction, engineering, science industries, community care, food industries, agricultural industries, commerce, and distribution. Each has four assessed elements which lead to the award of a foundation certificate: simple skills and workshop practice in the vocational field of the course; the theoretical base to

these skills; industrial and environmental studies which demonstrate the interaction between the industrial firm, the young person and the community; and skills in English and numeracy. In 1978, fifty-nine schools (i.e. about four per cent of the total) were providing City and Guilds foundation courses themselves, and another thirty-eight were providing these courses on a link basis with a further education college.*

SIXTH-FORM PROVISION AND THE TEACHERS' UNIONS

3.8 The teachers' associations covering the schools sector have published their policies on postsixteen education and they strongly argue the virtues of sixth forms and urge that wherever possible secondary schools should retain and develop them. Clearly, the views of the major teachers' associations are factors which the policy-maker has to take into account. Here are extracts from the views of two such bodies. The first is from the National Association of Schoolmasters/Union of Women Teachers:

> For many pupils we believe continuity of institution covering the 13–18 age range is highly desirable. This continuity is found at its highest level when the pupil is able to carry on his studies under the same teacher, but it also exists at a significant level when the pupil is able to continue in the same school.
>
> A fundamental reason for ensuring that each secondary school in a given LEA area has a role to play in the provision of sixth-form education lies in the spread of comprehensive schools. Now that the Government has legislated to require all authorities to establish comprehensive secondary schools, this reason is all the more compelling. It would be totally unfair, having introduced such schools, to ignore the implications of the development. A system of education which is primarily concerned with equality of opportunity must have a close regard to the need to ensure that there is parity of esteem as between one comprehensive school and another. It is difficult to think of anything more calculated to destroy this concept of parity of esteem than to allow some comprehensive schools to develop sixth-form provision whilst denying similar advantage to other comprehensive schools in the same neighbourhood. . . .
>
> We recognize that the present variety of provision is likely to continue to meet the varying circumstances in different geographical areas. Where the situation is being reviewed or where reorganization is being planned we urge that educational considerations are not submerged by economic argument.
>
> We are not averse to controlled experiment but we are convinced that the sixth form has a major contribution to make to post-sixteen education.
>
> (National Association of Schoolmasters/Union of Women Teachers)[17]

Similarly, the Headmasters' Association held the view that:

> Wherever it is possible, Secondary Schools should retain or develop Sixth Forms offering an education of adequate range.

*At the time of writing the City and Guilds foundation courses were considered, among others, to be particularly suitable for the nonacademic sixth formers, or CEE target group, as they were coming to be termed. You may have noted that in Table 6 eleven per cent of the courses were CEE (Certificate of Extended Education). Other courses held to be appropriate for the CEE target group were: Certificate of Further Education (CFE) in Pre-Nursing and Caring, Engineering and Construction, Business Studies; BEC General Certificate/Diploma, RSA Certificate courses, TEC level 1 units, etc.

We believe that this first principle can be supported by overwhelmingly strong arguments, which we summarize under two heads:

(1) *Quality of Secondary Teaching*

Our experience shows that many aspects of secondary education rely heavily upon teachers who would not willingly serve in posts where they were without the opportunity to work with the Sixth Form. Men and women of high ability are necessary for the pre-sixth-form years; it is they more often than not who lead, who plan, and who innovate. Without them, it is difficult to provide a secondary education of quality.

(2) *Continuity*

It is important that pupils should have the opportunity of continuity of teaching and guidance. Arrangements to this end can more easily be made where students continue in their schools, both because of the school's established concern and expertise in this field and because an alternative institution can serve a large majority of its students for no more than two years, and a considerable proportion for only one.

It is sometimes erroneously supposed that students who continue in their school must be subjected to unnecessary and irrelevant restrictions to freedom which are inappropriate to their stage of development. Schools today are conscious of the need to give sixth formers the liberty without which a mature sense of responsibility cannot develop, and the great majority of students wishing to continue full-time education beyond 16 find membership of their school's Sixth Form attractive.

We believe that many students who could be expected to move forward with benefit into the Sixth Forms of their schools would be reluctant to transfer at 16 to a different kind of institution, and might be lost to full-time education. We consider this to be particularly true of students from homes where there is no tradition of involvement in full-time studies beyond the school leaving age.

(Headmasters' Association)[18]

3.9 Nevertheless, since the 1960s some LEAs have decided that they will no longer permit each school to sustain a sixth form and have implemented, in some localities, a policy of concentrating all sixth-form provision into special centres or colleges.

SIXTH-FORM CENTRES AND SIXTH-FORM COLLEGES

3.10 The idea of a separate, post-sixteen school or centre was first proposed in 1954, but did not materialize until 1964 when the first sixth-form centre opened at Mexborough in Yorkshire. Although it was a separate entity on a grammar school campus, it was still organizationally connected to its lower school in that it shared staff and the same headmaster. The point to note, however, is that this first sixth-form centre also received pupils from other schools. It therefore marked the first policy development of concentrating sixth-form provision and predated the autonomous sixth-form college. The independent, autonomous sixth-form college did not appear until 1966 and was one of the products of Circular 10/65, so often referred to in this course. Circular 10/65, which proferred various options to LEAs for comprehensive reorganization, ventilated arguments for and against a break at sixteen within a comprehensive pattern, and invited experimentation. In response, the then Luton LEA converted a former boys' grammar school into the first sixth-form college, to provide for all sixth formers in the borough.

3.11 There were, in 1977, seventy-five sixth-form colleges with an average size of 489 pupils. On average, they offered twenty-seven A-level subjects, the average size of an A-level teaching unit being 12.3. All offered GCE A and O-levels, twenty-eight offered CSE, thirty-four AO-levels, thirty-four CEE, thirty-five RSA, seven City and Guilds foundation courses and two offered the Certificate in Office Studies. At about half the colleges a secretarial course could be combined with A-levels.[19]

THE SIXTH-FORM CONSORTIUM

3.12 A further means of making more viable a range of sixth-form provision in the schools, and one which can sustain subjects for which there is a low demand, is the consortium approach of cooperation and joint planning between a number of separate institutions. This principle also finds expression through joint school and further education cooperation in the '16–19 Federation', which will be described in paragraph 3.64, but it is also one that has been recommended for the schools:

> There is need to ensure that low-demand subjects are available to as large a number of students as possible. Given the fact that over a range of schools, it is highly likely that an authority will not be able to recruit teachers with a wide range of interests and knowledge, a most sensible idea is to concentrate low-demand subjects in certain schools and to have either a partial or full transfer of pupils at the sixth-form stage, where pupils' option ambitions make this necessary. Each school should play its part in the provision of low-demand subject courses and should expect to transfer, as well as to receive pupils.
>
> (National Association of Schoolmasters/Union of Women Teachers)[20]

COLLEGES OF FURTHER EDUCATION

3.13 The colleges of further education reflect in their course provision the three curricular traditions outlined earlier:

Vocational education, which is their main and original curricular tradition;

Academic or general education, which previously was confined to the schools, but which is now also represented in the colleges;

Industrial training, which for very many decades existed outside the colleges, but which is now increasingly coming into the colleges, especially in connection with schemes financed by the Manpower Services Commission and intended to secure the unified vocational preparation of young people through work preparation and experience.

3.14 In terms of the range and levels of work provided, and the proportion of the sixteen to nineteen year olds catered for, the further education colleges occupy a pivotal position in the total provision for this age group. I shall therefore deal with them in some detail by: (a) describing the types and common characteristics of the colleges of further education, as well as their internal organization and course provision; and (b) explaining their pattern of government and control, and contrasting it with the pattern of control which exists in the schools sector.

THE TYPES OF FURTHER EDUCATION COLLEGES AND THEIR CHARACTERISTICS

3.15 The further education sector has grown in response to the various and changing demands from students over sixteen for which the schools or

universities do not provide. It has met a demand for both general and vocational education. A most heterogeneous collection of institutions has resulted under the general heading of 'further education', having in common the fact that they operate under the further education regulations of the Department of Education and Science. These institutions include:

polytechnics
institutes of higher education
colleges of art
colleges of agriculture
colleges of technology and technical colleges
colleges of further education
tertiary colleges
colleges of education.

Figure 7 Day-release students at the Essex Institute of Agriculture learn about the different ear markings on beef cattle.

Figure 8 Students on a course leading to the Basic Craft Examination in Lithographic Platemaking and Printing at Berkshire College of Art inspect a four-colour print.

3.16 A safer guide than its name to the distinctive features of a college is given by examining:

the extent of advanced courses; the breadth of curricular provision; the balance between vocational and nonvocational work; the proportion of full-time to part-time day or evening work.

THE EXTENT OF THE PROVISION OF ADVANCED COURSES

3.17 Advanced courses are separately defined by the DES. They are those which are deemed to be beyond the level of GCE A-level and would normally not be taken by anyone under the age of eighteen. They would include degree courses, courses leading to the Certificate of Education and to a Higher National Diploma or Certificate, and many of the courses provided by professional institutions. Further educational institutions can be divided into those whose work is mostly concerned with advanced courses, such as polytechnics, institutes of higher education or colleges of education, and those which have very little or no advanced work, such as most colleges of further

education.* There are a number of institutions, however, which have a fair mix of each. The advanced further education colleges are not the concern of this unit, for they deal with higher education in the public sector, in parallel to the universities, and will be discussed in Unit 13. I am concerned with the majority of colleges of further education which do not have any significant amount of advanced work.

3.18 The distinction between advanced work and nonadvanced work is important because it affects the way courses are financed and controlled. Nonadvanced courses are financed by the local education authority and can be set up, expanded or closed at their discretion. On the other hand, advanced courses are financed nationally, by means of a pool, to which all LEAs contribute on the basis of an agreed formula. They can be started only with the agreement of the DES after consideration by a regional advisory council, which considers existing provision and the need for such courses over the whole country or region. So colleges which provide mainly advanced courses are, to a great extent, approved and financed nationally. The colleges which provide mostly nonadvanced courses are financed and receive course approval locally.

THE WIDTH OF CURRICULAR PROVISION

3.19 Some colleges are monotechnic by definition, such as the colleges of agriculture or art, though even within these types of institution there is a greater or smaller variety of courses. There are a number of specialist colleges such as the London College of Furniture, the College for the Distributive Trades, the London College of Printing, the Glasgow College of Building. Colleges of further education, and technical colleges, generally, have a very wide range of courses. Some colleges, however, even though not specialist institutions, may have a comparatively narrow range of courses falling mainly within two or three major areas: for example, engineering, building and mining, or catering, hairdressing and secretarial.

THE BALANCE BETWEEN VOCATIONAL AND NONVOCATIONAL WORK

3.20 A third distinguishing characteristic lies in the proportion of vocational to nonvocational work. It is not easy to give a precise definition that will separate the two types of work. Generally, vocational courses are those which, by their nature, provide the student with a qualification for entry to a job on satisfactorily completing the course. Thus a hairdressing course, social work course or welding course would be classed as vocational and nearly all day-release courses are vocational. Nonvocational courses are those which, however useful they may be in obtaining or holding down a job in the future, are not specific to one future vocation, but are of a general nature, leaving the student with some flexibility in choosing what job he wishes to enter. All GCE courses are therefore nonvocational, even if the subjects have clear vocational relevance, such as engineering drawing or commerce. Some courses, however, cannot be categorized neatly as one or the other. For example, the Ordinary National Diploma in business studies, or the Certificate of Education, awarded to prospective part-time teachers, are both wide-ranging courses and are frequently used by students as a general preparation for the future rather than for entry into a specific vocation. Colleges differ in the proportion of

*The following definitions are used by the DES:
Further education is used generically to cover all forms of nonuniversity postschool education. Normally subdivided into 'nonadvanced' (NAFE) and 'advanced further education' (AFE).
Advanced further education: all courses leading to a final qualification beyond Ordinary National Certificate (ONC) or GCE A-level; these include not only degree and postgraduate work, but also the Higher National Diploma (HND) and many other courses leading to professional and other qualifications (e.g. courses of initial teacher training).

effort they devote to the two categories. In some colleges most of the work is devoted to day-release students on vocational courses, whereas in others, half of the total student hours might be taken up by general courses, such as GCE.

THE BALANCE BETWEEN FULL-TIME AND PART-TIME, AND DAY AND EVENING STUDENTS

3.21 The fourth distinguishing characteristic is the proportion of students who attend full-time and part-time. Part-time students come under a variety of agreements. Many are released from their employment to attend one day a week or for short blocks of a few weeks. Others, who are not in employment, attend of their own volition courses on one day a week or more. Table 9 shows the number of students in each of the categories.

TABLE 9 Student in further education colleges in 1975*

Type of course	*Student numbers*
Full-time and sandwich	294,407
Day-release	497,965
Other part-time day-release	195,198
Evening only	770,845
Total	1,758,415

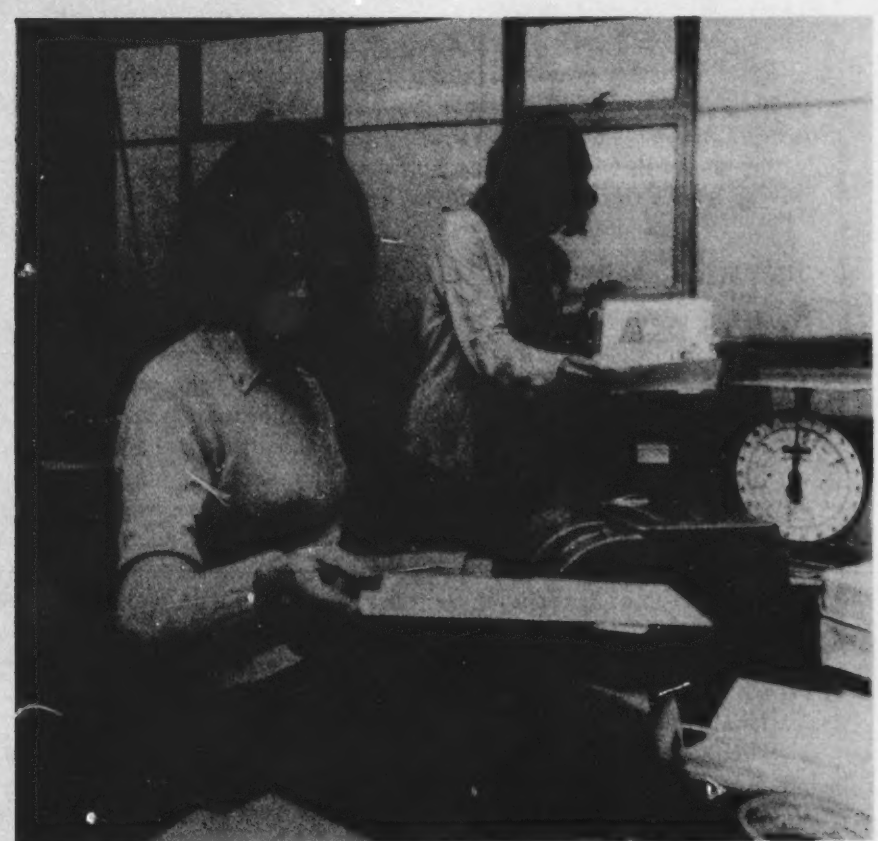

Figure 9 Students at Medway and Maidstone College of Technology on a two-year, part-time Certificate in Office Studies course learning how to deal with the post.

*These figures do not include the polytechnics, other institutions of higher education or the evening institutes, but they include students of all ages, unlike Table 1, which gives figures for sixteen to nineteen year olds only.

3.22 In 1960, the Crowther report recommended that by 1979 half the sixteen to eighteen year olds should be in full-time, further education, since these would be basically the craftsmen and technicians of the future. It also recommended that there should be compulsory, part-time education for all up to the age of eighteen. The figures in Table 9 and Table 1 (paragraph 1.7) clearly indicate that by the mid-1970s, at least, the first objective was far from being realized. Also, by this time the recommendation of compulsory day-release had still not become a matter of active policy and the numbers attending on a part-time day basis were still remarkably low by western European standards.

3.23 The character of a college varies with the attendance profile of its students. It is obvious that a college which has seventy per cent of its student hours taken up by full-time students will be a very different place from one with seventy per cent of its student hours devoted to day-release students. If one college has 700 full-time and 1,500 day-release students, another college of the same size might have 300 full-time students and 3,500 day-release students. Colleges, therefore, differ in the proportion of effort they devote to the two categories. In some colleges most of the work is generated by day-release students on vocational courses, whereas in others half of the total student hours might come from general courses such as GCE.

THE COMMON CHARACTERISTICS OF COLLEGES

3.24 Although colleges can be differentiated on the bases outlined above, which affect all further education institutions (including those in higher education), the majority of colleges of further education have the following characteristics in common:

(a) The college has traditionally been a selective institution. Potential students have had to reach minimum standards either for direct entry to a college or to an apprenticeship with day-release to college. Although, in theory, there could be a course suitable for every applicant, in practice, the colleges have recruited mainly from the more able band of school leavers. Unlike the comprehensive school, the colleges therefore have not had any substantial experience of providing for students from the lowest twenty-five per cent of educational achievement.

(b) By tradition it has been a skill-providing institution, and although there has been diversification into general education, it still has this tradition of providing skills and routing students into vocations. Therefore, it is heavily tied up with the business of moving people into various occupational and social status groups.

(c) It has the capacity to be a second chance or remedial institution for picking up students who want to make a fresh start. In particular, it can take the young student who has made very little of his school career and offer him a chance to work in a new environment. It can also provide for the adult who, after some years of one career, may want to train for a new job and a new way of life.

(d) The college is at the end of a long process of education and socialization of young people. By the time they arrive in the college, a lot has already happened to them at school in terms of curriculum routing or role socialization. In this sense, the further education college is limited in what it can do by a student's previous experience.

(e) The college of further education has to compete for its students: it has no guaranteed supply. Industrial firms can decide to send their students to another college, or not to send them to an educational institution at all; full-time students can decide not to come and, whatever the success of a college in launching new courses and maintaining existing courses one year, there is no surety that it will not lose this work the next year. Much of the

activity of the college is in marketing its courses and recruiting students in order to ensure the continuance of the next round of courses. It has to be a highly adaptive entrepreneurial and flexible organization in these terms.

'O.K. then Mr . . . smart pants, gear me up wiv a course wot'll compliment my . . . release from this obfuscation of social . . . typfication then.'

THE INTERNAL ORGANIZATION OF THE COLLEGE OF FURTHER EDUCATION

3.25 A college of further education provides courses which lead to recognized external qualifications or college certificates. It may also provide some recreational classes; it may be involved in some community activities, such as coffee mornings for the old or disabled; it may provide some activities outside the college (often known as outreach work) such as home teaching of English to Asian immigrant women. The vast bulk of the college work, however, is organized in courses. The course is the basic unit of college activity. A student is registered for a course, not a subject or collection of subjects. A course is put together from a number of subjects and activities, as two examples show. First, a course in business studies for the Ordinary National Diploma might consist of economics, accountancy, commerce, law, economic history and geography. Secondly, a course at craft level for motor mechanics might consist of calculations, general studies, motor vehicle principles and engine working practice. Even when there are a large number of students studying for GCE O or A-levels, they will probably be organized into a course, although there are difficulties in doing this.

3.26 The internal organization of the college is built round the collecting together of courses to form departments. The head of a department is responsible for the organization of the teaching and the administration involved in mounting and running a range of courses. Academic staff are allocated to the department in which most or all of their teaching takes place, where they are normally grouped with other teachers of their own specialisms. The head of department is responsible for organizing their timetable, for the academic standards and teaching performance of the staff, for assessment of students, for departmental equipment. In the first instance, he is likely to deal with any

problem his staff have and any problems between staff and students. He has a considerable say in the appointment of staff and in any promotion they may obtain in the department. The head organizes the departmental administration as he thinks fit. He may formally delegate work to a deputy or to section heads. He may organize regular staff meetings or he may rule as an autocrat. He must, however, abide by the conditions of service agreed between the local authority and the teachers' union, the National Association of Teachers in Further and Higher Education. These lay down the hours a teacher must work in a college (invariably thirty hours a week, thirty-eight weeks a year) and the hours of class-contact, which vary according to the seniority of the teacher in the following way:

Lecturer Grade I	20–22 hours
Lecturer Grade II	17–20 hours
Senior Lecturer	15–18 hours
Principal Lecturer	13–16 hours

Further remission of hours is given to teachers who are responsible for additional administrative work.

3.27 Although most academic staff are attached to a department, not all are. At the beginning of the 1970s, every member, except perhaps a part-time librarian, would have been in a department, but recently there has been a growth in the number of specialists who form what are best described as central agencies staff. Except in the very smallest colleges, the library staff has grown and become more specialist. There is likely to be a media-resources centre or educational technology centre, concerned with the use of audio-visual and other teaching aids. There will be at least one trained counsellor for dealing with the personal and career problems of students. There may be a curriculum adviser or specialist in helping teachers improve their teaching performances, often called a professional tutor. The principal will have at least one vice-principal, and often two, to help him. In the past, the vice-principal was generally an all purpose assistant to the principal, but more recently he often has a clearly stated specialist role. For example, in a college with two vice-principals, one may have a special responsibility for the curriculum and the other for personnel. It is no longer the case that the college staff is completely divided into departments. A number will be in autonomous units, responsible to the principal.

3.28 Although departments are made up by courses being grouped together, a small college may need to place a wide range of subject-work in one department in order to make it of sufficient size, while in a large college much more subdivision can take place. For example, one large college may be able to have separate departments of mechanical engineering and electrical engineering or of catering, hairdressing and social work. A much smaller college would have two combined departments with a very wide range of work. It follows also that there is no standard way of deciding what courses shall fall within one department. At one Midlands college of further education, catering courses are put into the art department, whereas in a Bristol college the bakery courses are placed in the science department.

3.29 As a course has more than one subject discipline, it is very likely that, for some parts of the course, a teacher may have to be borrowed from another department for a number of hours work per week. Departments may therefore need to be 'serviced' with teachers in subjects, such as mathematics, English or general studies, that are common to most courses. Some colleges are structured so that departments such as engineering or business studies have their own mathematics or general studies lecturers, but although this solves the problem of servicing, it leaves teachers isolated from their natural subject

group. Most attempts at rejigging the organization of a college are aimed at getting over this problem of servicing and currently there is a spate of experimentation in colleges from fundamental reorganization to minor adjustments of departmental boundaries. The problem of servicing is made more acute because of the great autonomy of the head of department. By tradition, he has run his department and his courses as he has felt fit, though accountable for his activities to the principal. Most heads seem to be happiest when they have everything under their own control, without having to work with other heads or to bother with negotiating and compromising. This is fine if the courses within the department are self-contained – if they make no demands on staff or resources from another department. The more a head finds he has to call on staff from other departments the unhappier he tends to become, because such staff are not under his control and he cannot even choose the staff he would like or reject the staff he gets sent.

3.30 When a college has a large number of full-time GCE students, the problem of organizing their work become acute. Students are likely to have a free choice of combinations of subjects within a total offering of up to thirty. If the GCE subjects are distributed over a number of departments, some students will be working under two or even three departments and this creates major problems of liaison, in which the student may find it difficult to know who is responsible for him. One answer is to put all GCE work in one department, but for many colleges this creates too large a department in relation to other departments, and emphasizes the difference between GCE work and other kinds of further education courses.

NONADVANCED COURSE PROVISION IN THE COLLEGES OF FURTHER EDUCATION

3.31 The basic pattern of courses provided in the typical college is shown in Figure 10. This wide range of courses is connected with the diversity of occupational

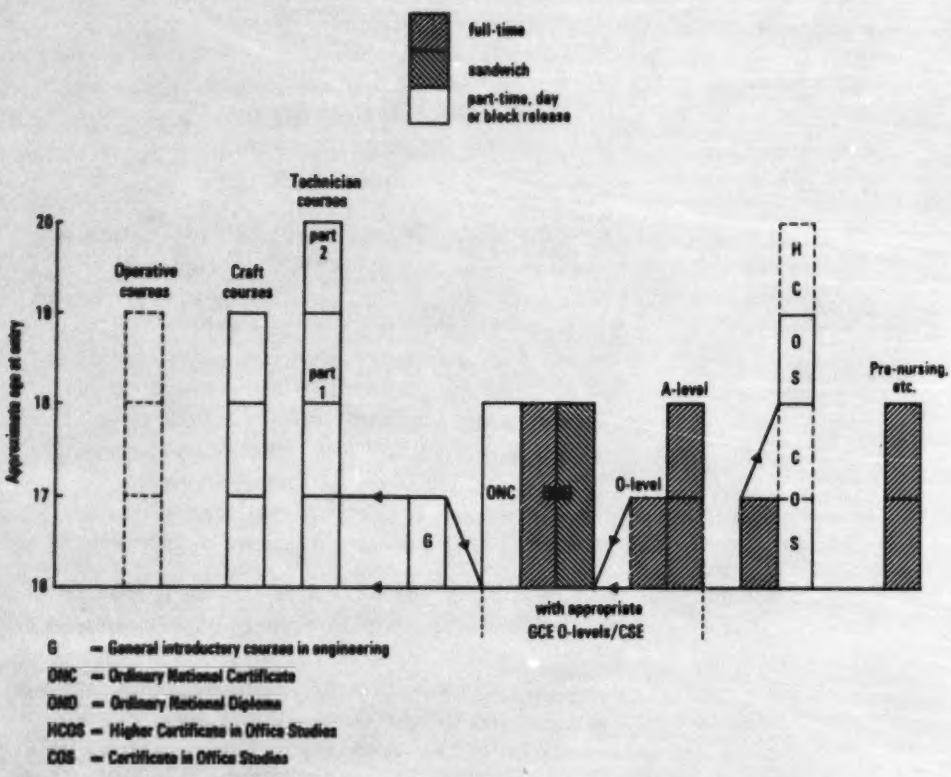

Figure 10 A typical range of courses provided in a further education college.[21]

interests served by the college. As a consequence, the college is involved with a considerable number of external examining and validating bodies. In this respect, the further education college differs from the school or university. The role of these examination bodies is of key importance and, while every college deals with many of them, there are four main categories of examination and related course work which embrace the work of all colleges:

1 City and Guilds of London Institute (CGLI);

2 General Certificate of Education (GCE);

3 Ordinary National Certificates and Diplomas (HNC, HND, ONC, OND);

4 Technician Education Council (TEC) and Business Education Council (BEC).

CITY AND GUILDS OF LONDON INSTITUTE

3.32 This body provides many courses leading to vocational qualifications, mostly at craft or technician level, though there are some that do not fall into those categories, such as the part-time teaching certificate. The syllabuses, and rules about workshop practice and hours of study, are laid down centrally by the CGLI. Examinations are set and marked centrally, and practical work is assessed by Assessors who visit the colleges. The courses are designed for part-time students who are employed during the week at the skills they are studying. On a one day per week basis, it takes a student, on average, four years to complete a craft or technician certificate course. Many students, however, complete only some stages of the course and a number of research studies have exposed a worryingly high drop-out rate on vocational courses. In 1975–6 there were 368,158 candidates in the United Kingdom and Eire, and they were divided by the major industrial groupings which CGLI use in the following way:

Industrial grouping	
Agriculture, horticulture and forestry	15,509
Mining and quarrying	1,457
Chemical, metallurgical & allied industries	3,297
Food and drink	2,793
Engineering	167,249
Vehicles	39,955
Textiles	699
Clothing, footwear and leather	2,793
Paper, printing and publishing	5,472
Furniture	5,317
Construction	46,527
Gas, electricity and water	3,548
Distributive trades	3,023
Foundation courses	504
Hotel and catering	27,932
Professional and scientific services	10,716
Miscellaneous services	10,915
Home economics and creative studies	3,258
General courses	12,030
Special examinations	2,041
HM forces	7,124

GENERAL CERTIFICATE OF EDUCATION O AND A-LEVEL COURSES

3.33 I have already described how the colleges came to develop a wide range of GCE O and A-level courses. In 1975 there were 318,000 students on such courses in the further education colleges.

HIGHER AND ORDINARY NATIONAL CERTIFICATES AND DIPLOMAS

3.34 These vocational examinations, and the courses which lead to them, are organized by central bodies known as the 'joint committees'. These approve the two-year, full-time courses for OND and HND and part-time courses on a day-release or block-release basis for ONC and HNC. In very rough terms, ordinary certificates and diplomas equate in standard with GCE A-levels, and higher certificates and diplomas equate with the first year or two of a degree course. A course consists of a group of subjects under a vocational heading – business studies, engineering, catering. Although each joint committee provides model syllabuses, any college can submit its own syllabus for approval within the guide lines laid down. Examinations are marked within the college and the standard is checked by external moderators. Practical work is marked by external assessors. In 1977, 26,000 students were on OND courses and 63,000 on ONC courses. On HND courses there were 20,000 students and on HNC courses 35,000. HNDs and HNCs are classified as advanced work and many colleges do not have courses at this level. There are many students studying for a range of other qualifications: a significant group is that studying for the secretarial and commercial qualifications of the Royal Society of Arts or Pitmans. Most social work courses come under the control of the Central Council for Education and Training in Social Work (CCETSW). There are many other professional bodies which offer examinations to a small number of candidates such as the Institute of Banking or the National Education Board for Supervisory Studies.

Figure 11 Full-time, catering students studying for an Ordinary National Certificate at work in a kitchen at South Devon Technical College that supplies a restaurant open to the public.

TEC AND BEC COURSES

3.35 A major development since 1975 has been the organization of two new bodies which are intended to oversee much of the vocational work of colleges. These are the Technician Education Council (TEC) and the Business Education Council (BEC). Their area of concern was the work covered by HNDs, HNCs, ONDs, ONCs and the higher technical courses of the CGLI, as well as various courses of the professional institutes, all of which would cease to operate following the new policy. The intention was to simplify the area of vocational qualification above craft level.

TECHNICIAN EDUCATION COUNCIL

3.36 The Technician Education Council was established in April 1973, with a view to replacing the 100 or so joint committee awards and some CGLI courses. There are four basic awards:

TEC Certificate
TEC Diploma
TEC Higher Certificate
TEC Higher Diploma

The differences between a certificate and a diploma relate only to the volume of work and are not connected with attendance. The most important characteristic of the TEC programme is that its courses are designed by the college. Colleges have responsibility for identifying the educational needs of technicians in their areas, constructing programmes to meet these needs and developing procedures for assessing students. This has meant a massive reassessment of the curricula within the colleges and one of the major benefits may well be in the development of new staff skills in curricular analysis. Schemes are submitted for approval to one of the twenty-two TEC programme committees and moderators check that the schemes are operated in the college in accordance with the submission. At the beginning of the 1976–7 academic year, some 300 programmes started in 120 colleges and, by 1978–9, most TEC programmes were underway.

BUSINESS EDUCATION COUNCIL

3.37 The BEC was established a year after the TEC, in May 1974, and had few organizations and courses acceding to it. It might seem to have a simpler task, but it is difficult to find a precise definition of 'technician' level to apply to the business world. The council is operating in a field where there is a multiplicity of professional bodies providing qualifications that students and employers seem to require. It is unlikely that all these bodies will come within the ambit of BEC. The awards are to be certificates or diplomas, with the diploma simply containing more units of study. Awards will be at three levels, ordinary, national and higher. Only the higher level programme will be college designed. Programmes for the ordinary and national certificates or diplomas will contain compulsory core units, which will establish behavioural objectives. The colleges will be left to devise the teaching programmes, to be introduced between 1978 and 1980.

GOVERNMENT AND CONTROL IN THE COLLEGES OF FURTHER EDUCATION

3.38 In the introduction to this unit, I indicated that the system of government in further education and the constraints on college policy-making were markedly different from those in the school sector, which were presented and discussed in Units 10 and 11. The control of the colleges is constrained by three sets of factors:

a legally prescribed basis both for college government and internal policy-making;

the 'entrepreneur' tradition and the external market;

a measure of external policy control and coordination through the Regional Advisory Councils for Further Education.

I shall describe each of these in turn. As you read through this section, think about the ways in which the whole basis of policy-making in a college differs from that of a school.

3.39 The constitutional arrangements for the government of the colleges were the subject of an act of parliament in 1968. This act, together with a number of circulars, has elsewhere been described as the Weaver reform[22] and it was this reform which, at the time of writing, governed the external control and internal policy-making of all maintained colleges of further education. The aim of the 1968 (No 2) Education Act was to give greater autonomy to the colleges and Circular 7/70 advised that powers should be distributed in the following way:

(a) the local education authority, in consultation with the governors, shall be responsible for determining the general educational character of the college and its place in the local educational system;

(b) the governing body shall be responsible for the general direction of the college;

(c) the principal shall be responsible to the governors for internal organization management and discipline;

(d) the academic board shall be responsible for the planning, coordination and oversight of the academic work of the college, including arrangements for the admission and examination of students, subject to the overall responsibilities of the governing body and depending on the proportion and volume of advanced work.

Figure 12 The Business Educational Council was established in May 1974 to oversee vocational courses in business studies at the 'technician' level.

The local education authority

3.40 I do not need to say more about the role of the LEA than to remind you that its functioning body is the education committee of the county or metropolitan district council or Greater London borough or of the Inner London Education Authority and its executive is provided by the education department under its chief education officer.

The governing body

3.41 The instruments of government of colleges lay down the composition of governing bodies. As the instruments do not require the approval of the Secretary of State, although he advises on them, there is some variation from one local authority to another. Most governing bodies have a membership of between twenty and thirty, and LEA representatives form between one quarter and one half. Circular 7/70 was very emphatic that LEA representatives who are normally councillors who sit on the education committee, should not form a majority. Representatives of industry, commerce and other educational bodies are appointed either by cooption or by nomination by named organizations, such as the Chamber of Commerce, the Trades Council or the National Union of Teachers. They generally comprise from between one-third and one-half of the governing body. The principal is an ex-officio member and at least two other members of the academic staff are appointed. They may be elected by the whole of the staff or appointed by the academic board.

3.42 Circular 7/70, which followed the Weaver report and the Education (No 2) Act of 1968, suggested that students should be appointed to academic boards, especially where there were a substantial number of them over the age of eighteen. By 1978, most colleges had one or two students on the governing body. The chairman of the governing body does not have to be a local authority representative, but may not be the principal or an academic member of staff. The governing body has the following powers.

Figure 13 The Technician Education Council was established in April 1973 to oversee the vocational work of colleges above the craft level.

(a) It receives annual estimates of proposed expenditure and submits these, after approval, to the LEA. It may normally then incur expenditure approved in the estimates without further reference and, within limits, may transfer money approved for one purpose to another within stated limits.

(b) It may carry out repairs, maintenance and alterations without reference up to a certain figure – generally £500, but in some areas it is as high as £1,000 or as low as £150.

(c) It may place orders for supplies, equipment and services at its discretion.

(d) It draws up procedures and takes part in the appointment and promotion of teachers. It is able to suspend and recommend the dismissal of teachers, including the principal, under agreed procedures.

(e) It must establish a student disciplinary committee with agreed procedures for disciplinary cases. It acts as an appeal body for students who wish to challenge decisions of the student disciplinary body.

The principal

3.43 The principal is responsible for the general running of the college. A typical example of the duties of a principal are prescribed in the constitution of one college: '[the principal] shall be responsible to the governors for the external relations and internal organization, management and discipline of the college, and shall exercise supervision over the teaching and nonteaching staff other than the clerk to the governors'. Though these powers may seem to be circumscribed by the governors and the academic board, the principal is very much in charge, and normally wields very great influence over the college. Many principals have been powerful, if autocratic, entrepreneurs, exercising vigorous leadership in expanding their colleges. Though they have to work within the new constraints brought about by the Weaver reform, they can, if they are adept at operating within such constraints, still exercise very great power and imprint their personalities on their colleges.

The academic board

3.44 Some colleges previously had some kind of staff council which the principal used for consultation. The 1968 (No 2) Education Act, as interpreted by Circular 7/70, made it mandatory for all colleges, except the smallest, to have a consultative and collegial system of policy-making in the form of an academic board. The Secretary of State has to approve the composition and constitution of this board and its powers, and areas of competence are laid down. The purpose of establishing academic boards was to create a mechanism for placing control of academic affairs in the hands of academic staff:

> Academic freedom is a necessary condition of the highest efficiency and of the proper progress of academic institutions. The academic affairs of a college are primarily for academic people to deal with: and we have concluded . . . that every college should have an academic board.
>
> (The Weaver Report)[23]

Although the Weaver report suggested that academic boards should be concerned with estimates of expenditure and with the apportionment of staff to departments and posts within the college, this was not pursued in Circular 7/70 and is not common in colleges. The academic board does have its say on the selection of students, methods of teaching, assessment of work, evaluation of students' progress and for the general pattern of academic provision. There is, however, a crucial distinction in its powers. Colleges that deal mainly with advanced work and adult students (over eighteen) have a board which is fully legislative. It can override the principal and heads of department because its

powers are directly delegated from the governing body. This may bring the board into conflict with the principal, who can challenge its decisions by recourse to the governing body, but unless the governors reverse a decision, the principal must accept it and, as chief executive of the college, must put it into action. However, colleges which have little or no advanced work, and who deal mainly with students between sixteen and nineteen, normally have boards which constitutionally only advise the principal on the college's academic policy. Nevertheless, a principal would find it hard to go against the considered opinion of the advisory academic board. Hence, in some colleges, the principal always accepts the decisions of this type of academic board, even when disagreeing with it, though technically the board could be ignored or over-ruled and the principal's own policy implemented.

3.45 The constitutional arrangements for colleges of further education therefore impose a double control on policy. First, there is the external control of the governing body which, in contrast to the schools, usually has a significant membership of people with technical expertise in business and commerce. These members advise on technical developments that might affect what the college is, or should be teaching, and not infrequently they have an even wider interest in that they are employers of many of the students attending the college. They therefore have both expertise and direct interest in the curriculum of the college and can influence it substantially. Secondly, as was outlined above, college policy must be made on at least some collective basis. The very existence of the academic board means that objectives must be argued out from among competing claims and with an awareness that, finally, they must be acceptable to the governing body, which has significant financial powers to back or veto proposals. In addition, though this is not a completely separate constraint, governors, principals and academic boards are always constrained by the external market.

THE ENTREPRENEUR TRADITION AND THE EXTERNAL MARKET

3.46 The basic fact of life for the colleges is that they operate in the noncompulsory sector of education. Consequently, the policies of governing body, principal and academic board, alike, are all constrained and, in no small measure, controlled by the external market. In contrast to the schools, where the headmaster tradition has produced marked individuality in institutional policy, the 'entrepreneur tradition' dominates in the colleges. The external market supplies students on a voluntary basis, so that the curriculum of a college must, at all times, command market support if staff are not to be underemployed or, indeed, unemployed. Response and adaptiveness to market needs, and the cultivation of new markets, dominate the running of the colleges. Principals and heads of department must act as entrepreneurs in formulating policies which please clients. In the colleges, the client, whether defined as the individual student or the students' employer, is king and is the main agent determining the curriculum.

3.47 The force of market factors has moulded a professional outlook among teachers in further education very different from that of school teachers. The extent to which it is different is not as widely appreciated as it might be. It not only bears on the curriculum and choice of courses, but reaches even to the detail of syllabuses and methods of teaching. For example, when a commercial firm, hospital board, or industrial training board, for example, makes a special request for a particular subject or course to follow a particular syllabus and to be taught by certain methods, this is not seen as a reproach to professional autonomy. Teachers in further education see their professionalism much more bound up with competence in their own skills in a subject, and in their ability to teach it to students of diverse abilities, than in a protective right to define for themselves the needs of their clients.

3.48 In the further education sector there is one piece of administrative machinery, the regional advisory council, which influences the policies of colleges on an area basis and for which there is no counterpart in the schools sector. Each advisory council covers a number of local authority areas.* They provide administrative forums where representatives of education, industry and commerce can meet to advise their constituent education authorities and establishments of further education on all aspects of further education and they seek to coordinate the overall provision of further education courses in the region. These councils were set up to mitigate the less desirable effects of the entrepreneur tradition, such as duplication of courses in excess of demand and an over-competitive approach.

3.49 The regional advisory councils have three main functions:

to coordinate the provision of all courses in the region;

to undertake regional planning, subject to ultimate approval by the DES of all advanced courses;

to further curricular development through the work of specialist subject panels.

As their name implies, they are advisory rather than executive. Nevertheless, they provide a source of external influence on the policies of the colleges. In combination with the system of government and strong market control externally, and collegial policy-making internally, they constitute a strong and pluralistic control to the policies of any individual college.

Activity 2 (a) Explain why the policy constraints on the colleges would not permit a gross divergence between the aims of clients and teachers, yet they appear to do so for the schools.

(b) Compare the model of internal policy-making and management that exists in the schools with that which exists in the colleges.

Compare your answers with the author's comments in Appendix 1.

You should spend about twenty minutes on this activity.

THE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATIONS IN FURTHER EDUCATION

3.50 You have seen that colleges of further education provide for the sixteen to nineteen year olds by a wide range of courses, which also includes the courses traditionally offered in school sixth forms. In paragraph 3.8 above, I noted some of the views held by two teachers' unions in the secondary sector regarding the role of the schools in the overall provision for this age group. Further education teachers are unequivocally in favour of a policy of turning the nonadvanced colleges of further education into tertiary colleges.

3.51 The following are some quotations taken from the joint evidence of the Association of Principals of Colleges and the Association of Colleges of Further and Higher Education given in 1972 to the Education and Arts Subcommittee of the House of Commons Expenditure Committee:

> The total contribution of further education to the education of the 16–19 age group is at least as great as that of the secondary system. Of all students taking full-time courses in the age group nearly forty per cent are in further education. Of all individuals taking either full-time or part-time

*In Wales, the Welsh Joint Education Committee performs the function of a regional advisory council in addition to its other functions (see Unit 3).

courses, over seventy per cent are in further education. The Associations believe strongly that most authorities, in making their plans for comprehensive reorganization of the secondary schools system, have failed to take account of this provision.

(House of Commons)[24]

3.52 The evidence goes on to regret the scale of secondary reorganization based on 'orthodox' schools for eleven to nineteen year olds, especially on the grounds that scarce resources are wasted. It was pointed out that, where, on the other hand, sixth-form colleges had been established the coexistence of further education colleges has led to what is, in effect, a binary system for the sixteen to nineteen age group and that:

> . . . can only lead to uneconomic duplication of facilities, to unsatisfactory deployment of specialist staff, to social divisiveness and to undesirable competition for scarce resources. For these reasons the Associations strongly welcome the unitary system (represented by tertiary colleges which has been adopted by certain authorities, as in Exeter and Barnstaple, where all students who wish to continue their education beyond the age of sixteen, whether on a full-time or part-time basis, in academic or vocational courses, are catered for in a single tertiary college.
>
> The Associations believe that this is the only system for dealing with the sixteen to nineteen age group which fully accords with the educational and social principles of comprehensive education, that it will ensure the most economic use of resources of specialist staff, of equipment, of specialist accommodation like libraries, laboratories and workshops, and that it will thus use the resources available to provide the widest possible range of opportunities for young people. For these reasons the Associations urge that, in normal circumstances, the tertiary college should be regarded as the standard method of provision for the sixteen to nineteen age group.
>
> (House of Commons)[25]

3.53 The policy-maker who wishes to treat provision for this age group as a whole is, therefore, faced with the fact that the teachers' associations concerned advocate markedly different policies. Those of the schools' sector demand the continuity of school sixth forms, while the further education associations advocate the widespread establishment of tertiary colleges.

THE TERTIARY COLLEGE

3.54 The educational provision of the tertiary college includes both the usual range of courses found in a college of further education and those normally provided in a school sixth form. In fact, the tertiary college is really a further education college which has been extended to cater for all sixteen to nineteen year olds in a particular area. The first combined sixth-form college and further education college was opened at Exeter in 1970, though this type of institution had been strongly advocated for many years, principally by Lord Alexander, both on economic grounds and on the grounds that it alone, of all institutions for students over sixteen, could meet the comprehensive principle. In 1977 there were twelve tertiary colleges. They served, on average, 725 full-time A-level students and offered twenty-nine A-level courses. Because they developed from colleges of further education they could offer 'full-time sixth formers' a far wider range of courses than could the sixth form or even the sixth-form college.

3.55 The advocates of the tertiary college have drawn attention to its curricular strength across the academic and vocational traditions:

Figure 14 The tertiary college provides access to a comprehensive range of courses and facilities for 16–19 year olds of different abilities and educational needs within a single institution. Students at Richmond upon Thames College take courses ranging from A-level to advanced vocational design courses and TEC courses. They can also enjoy sailing on the Thames!

> [the tertiary college] by providing courses in such fields as engineering, applied science, building and business studies, full-time or part-time alongside the academic GCE A-level courses, which under our present system normally exist in isolation, could be a powerful instrument in breaking down the unique British prejudice against technology, commerce and vocational education generally. The sixth-form college and the senior high school, on the other hand, could only exacerbate this prejudice.
>
> (Dean and Choppin)[26]

However, among opponents of such a policy are those who allege that the supposed gains of tertiary colleges would be negated by the defects in teaching techniques and curricular skills of the large number of staff in colleges of further education who are not trained teachers.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF A TERTIARY COLLEGE

3.56 To illustrate both the range of provision made by the tertiary college and the range of factors that policy-makers have to take into account in planning a comprehensive provision for sixteen to nineteen year olds in a single institution, the following is a short case history of Crosskeys College.

3.57 Crosskeys is a tertiary college in what is known as the western valley of Gwent, an area where the coal industry was supreme, but is now in decay. In 1971, and before comprehensive reorganization, there were, within the catchment area of the college, two grammar schools, seven secondary modern schools and the Crosskeys Technical College. In Gwent, and its predecessor, Monmouthshire, comprehensive reform was implemented with the pragmatism noted in Unit 11 that was characteristic of England and Wales. Though the authority's basic policy was one of all-through schools for pupils aged eleven to eighteen, operational necessity forced a pattern of schools for eleven to fourteen and fourteen to eighteen year olds in some parts. At Crosskeys it brought about the first tertiary college to be developed in the county and, indeed, in Wales as a whole.

3.58 Logistical considerations gave strong support for the establishment of a tertiary college at Crosskeys as the solution to the problem of reorganization in the area. Other important factors were:

(a) In an area of narrow valley, there was a paucity of flat land and the existing schools could not be extended sufficiently to meet the comprehensive needs of a school population comprising eleven to eighteen year olds, but they could be adapted to provide schools which catered for pupils aged eleven to sixteen and over sixteen.

(b) At the Crosskeys Technical College there was sufficient land for additional buildings to meet a 'sixth-form' intake. There was also some concern about the survival of Crosskeys as a college of further education: work connected with mining courses, for example, had been decreasing rapidly.

(c) The headteachers of the secondary modern schools favoured a solution which would ensure the continuance of the majority of their schools and secured a local NUT resolution in favour of a tertiary college.

(d) The vice-chairman of the county education committee was an advocate of tertiary policy; members of the education committee visited the tertiary college in Exeter to give themselves an understanding of this option.

3.59 There was substantial local support for a 'schools only' policy, which would have saved the two existing and widely esteemed grammar schools as centres of continued academic sixth-form teaching, but in the face of the operational factors and the not to be underestimated political support of the major teachers' union (as well as the background influence of HMI) the authority readily opted for a tertiary solution. The implementation of the policy, in

1976, brought into existence six comprehensive schools for pupils aged eleven to sixteen to feed the former technical college. This was designated a tertiary college and supplemented with £1m worth of building extensions. Thus education for eleven to nineteen year olds in the area was provided by seven institutions whereas previously there had been ten.

3.60 Before the end of their final year, pupils in the six feeder schools received a brochure giving details of all the courses available in the college, so that they could apply for and receive provisional admission to the college before they received their examination results. A considerable number of coordinating arrangements were developed between the college and its feeder schools. For example, groups of staff from all the institutions met in area subject panels, which were particularly concerned to unify curricular and syllabus requirements so as to minimize problems of continuity for students moving to the college from six different schools.

DEPARTMENTAL ORGANIZATION AND COURSE PROVISION

3.61 From the beginning the college decided not to set up a 'sixth-form unit' or otherwise make a separate section for the work which had previously been undertaken in school sixth forms. Instead, they reorganized all existing college departments so that the older, established courses and the new courses would be integrated within a new internal organization in which every department had a concern for both vocational and academic work. Five new departments emerged: business studies, creative arts, earth and natural sciences, language and environmental studies, and technology, so that each department organized a range of full-time and part-time courses in its subject area. Whereas, previously, each individual department would decide what courses it would mount, an inevitable consequence of the tertiary policy was to diminish departmental autonomy so as to permit corporate planning of the college's educational provision as a whole and 'across the board' timetabling so as to ensure the maximum access to all courses for any student.

THE TERTIARY PROGRAMME: FULL-TIME COURSES

3.62 In addition to a similar range of part-time courses available at any typical college of further education, Crosskeys College was offering, in 1977, six categories of full-time course to all students transferring at sixteen. It is these courses which really convey the picture of what a rationalized and integrated provision, within a single institution, for students of sixteen and over, of all abilities, amounts to. They were:

GCE O and A-level courses In 1977, forty-one A-level and thirty-five O-level subjects were offered.

Foundation courses These were offered to those who wished to stay on in full-time education after sixteen, but who were not yet certain about their ultimate choice of career. There were foundation courses in: engineering, business and commerce, health, welfare and personal services, laboratory science, and creative art and design.

Craft and technician courses These were one-year, full-time courses in such subjects as integrated engineering, motor vehicle technology, laboratory science.

Ordinary National Diplomas These were two-year courses in technology, business studies and science, and, in 1978, were about to be replaced by the new TEC courses.

Commercial and secretarial courses A range of one-year and two-year courses were provided from 'junior clerk-typist' to Diploma of the Association of Medical Secretaries.

Other full-time courses These were provided in such subjects as hairdressing, catering, physical education.

PASTORAL AND SOCIAL PROVISION

3.63 From the beginning, the college was aware of potential criticism of the inadequacy of its student welfare. It developed the concept of a personal tutor for each student and each member of staff holding this office looked after a group of fifteen students. It also appointed a lecturer to specialize full-time in employment and careers guidance, and a half-time member of staff to act as a counsellor on social problems.

THE 16–19 FEDERATION

3.64 The tertiary college represents a policy to integrate and rationalize, within a single institution, the whole provision for sixteen to nineteen year olds in a particular area. By contrast, the 16–19 Federation is a policy device which, though recognizing the existence of a college of further education and school sixth forms in a given area, seeks to ensure that they are brought together under a single system of control. The 16–19 Federation was pioneered by Oxfordshire. All full-time courses for students over sixteen were planned jointly and offered to fifth-year pupils in a common brochure, with specialist advice given on their applicability to a student's ability and career orientation. The choice of course determined which institution the student was to attend. Policy for any federation's area was determined by an area board consisting of school and college representatives, and curricular development was devolved to subcommittees or subject panels.

OVERLAP, DUPLICATION AND ANOMALIES

3.65 From the material so far presented, you are likely to agree that the picture of provision for sixteen to nineteen year olds at the end of the 1970s was characterized by overlap, duplication, and anomalies. School sixth forms, sixth-form centres and the colleges all made similar provision for GCE A-level and certain other courses. Hence, in some areas, there was duplication of provision and competition for the same clients. In other areas, a range of policy devices operated which either concentrated some or all aspects of post-compulsory education or, at a minimum, coordinated the overall range of courses. Throughout the country as a whole there were, therefore, wide variations in the institutional arrangements catering for this age group.

3.66 You will also have noted the large number of different policy agents in the total provision, and especially the fact that the Manpower Services Commission, which is outside the educational service, was making a growing and important contribution to policy. To a lesser extent, this had also become the case for another department of government, the Department of Health and Social Security. In 1978, it adopted a new policy which entitled young people to draw unemployment benefit and enrol on a further education course, provided that the total time spent on the course in a week did not exceed twenty-one hours, and that they were genuinely interested in getting a job as soon as they could. In terms of its incentive to leave school the school leaver's immediate entitlement to Social Security supplementary benefit was, perhaps, of more significance to the overall sixteen to nineteen picture. By 1978, therefore, the local education authorities, the Department of Education and Science, the Department of Health and Social Security and employers in industry were all playing some part in the overall provision of education and training for the age group.

3.67 In addition to overlap, duplication and a lack of curricular coordination generally, the separate policies of these several agents led to some glaring anomalies in the financial support enjoyed by students taking different kinds of course.

TABLE 10 Financial support for students in 1978

Type of student	*Financial support*
Full-time A-level student either in school or college	Free tuition. Further education maintenance allowance in certain cases. Average £2.50 per week
Student receiving social security, possibly attending a full-time A-level course	Benefit of about £9 per week
Part-time day-release student	College fees and travel paid. Student will earn an appropriate wage
Full-time Ordinary National Diploma student	Discretionary award by LEA. £4–£5 per week
Manpower Services Commission training course	Standard £19.50 maintenance allowance

3.68 The financial anomalies which existed in 1978 are shown in Table 10. Though these may well have changed by the time you read this unit, the differing financial arrangements had, at the time of writing, become an important matter of concern to those seeking a more coherant and coordinated policy for the sixteen to nineteen year olds. The practicalities of eliminating these differences were considerable. For example, to give the same financial support to school pupils over sixteen as that enjoyed by those supported by the Youth Opportunities Programme would cost an additional £1,000 m a year; and to make their position comparable with students of similar age who were receiving supplementary benefit would cost between £300 m and £500 m a year.

'You're in the wrong queue, man – no one ever got a Diploma for Unemployment!'

Activity 3 (a) List the policy-makers and providers of education for the sixteen to nineteen year olds and write down a sentence or two on the role of each.

(b) From the material so far presented on the subject of educational provision for sixteen to nineteen year olds, write down what you deem to be the three most pressing policy problems and give your reasons.

Compare your answers with the author's comment in Appendix 1.

You should spend about forty-five minutes on this activity.

4 The desirable and the attainable

4.1 I have already indicated in the preceding sections that a key question concerning policy for the sixteen to nineteen age group is whether education should be broken at sixteen for all students by way of either a sixth-form college or tertiary college. Can and should such a policy be applied as the solution to the overlap and lack of coordination in provision for people of this age. The arguments that are advanced for or against such a policy were also indicated. In this section I shall look at what might be the most desirable solution and I also want to make clear the constraints that must be taken into account in the formulation of a coordinated policy for any given area.

4.2 To do away with overlap and hence bring about two distinct sectors – a compulsory five-to-sixteen sector and a voluntary sixteen-to-nineteen sector – would mean that some who have existing claims in the area of overlap would have to give them up. Consequently, the arguments not only embrace educational, social and economic considerations, but also the self-interests of groups participating in the present provision. As you know from Units 10 and 11, linked to the size and amount of advanced work within a school, there are promotion points and rewards that can be distributed. Though the system is different in detail, similar principles apply to further education. Hence, people in further education advocating a tertiary policy may not be completely lacking in self-interest, just as a school teacher, in arguing for the continuance of school sixth forms, is unlikely to be completely unaware of the effects of implementing such a policy on the future rewards to go around in a school. Claims for a particular pattern of provision cannot therefore be divorced from the underlying interests of the participant professional groups.

Activity 4 Give four arguments which are used in favour of a break in education at sixteen and four arguments which are used against such a policy.

Compare your answers with the author's comments in Appendix 1.

You should spend about thirty minutes on this activity.

IS THERE OBJECTIVE EVIDENCE FOR OR AGAINST A BREAK AT SIXTEEN?

4.3 From the data available in 1977 there is a small amount of objective evidence which bears on some, but by no means all, of the arguments deployed. There are two things which can be said objectively:

(a) A break at sixteen with concentration into one or another type of post-sixteen institution permits a wider range of courses to be offered.

(b) Tertiary colleges offer considerably more options than sixth-form colleges.

These two statements, however, cover but one criterion – the range of courses – while the 'pros' and 'cons' considered earlier, which I have indicated in the suggested answer to Activity 4, cover a range of considerations.

4.4 A most comprehensive and important study of the sixteen to nineteen sector was that undertaken by Dean and Choppin. In Reading 3 below they analyse and assess the strength of the various arguments used.

READING 3 A break at 16

Thirty years ago the distinction between the role of the schools and the role of the colleges was fairly clear. Schools were there to provide education, particularly in academic subjects, whereas the colleges were viewed as training institutions with a definite vocational slant. Such a sharp distinction would today be quite unrealistic, as the further education colleges undertake a steadily increasing proportion of the teaching of academic subjects for those of post-compulsory age, and the further education sector now has its own substantial stake in higher education (the polytechnics). This means that the 16-year-old student who wishes to embark upon a GCE A-level course, aimed at eventual entry to a university or polytechnic, frequently has a choice between continuing into the sixth form of the school attended, or of transferring to an FE College. This duplication of educational provision, though expensive, has certain educational advantages, including the freedom implied by this choice. For some the continuity provided by the 11–18 school with its long term interest in the personal and intellectual development of the student, offers the best chance for a productive and beneficial sixth-form course. For others who fall foul of the secondary school authorities, the opportunity to make a fresh start in a different and more adult environment would be advantageous. If the choice did not exist then many of these students would probably be lost to the education system permanently. Our own research shows that where students have had this choice of school or college, almost all of them feel content with the environment in which they find themselves. For some this follows a conscious decision, but for others, it reveals compliance with the administrative arrangements made in their area.

Arguments against dual provision must be primarily economic. There are those who still fear the separation of sheep from goats, with the sheep staying on at school to work for Oxbridge scholarships while the goats are relegated to the FE sector to train as technicians, but such a simplified model has long since ceased to be valid. Many people, however, would question whether the 11–18 school with its strong and usually somewhat introverted societal structure is any more providing an adequate preparation for adult life, or even for a course of higher education. Schools have traditionally been concerned to protect pupils from many of the realities of the adult world of work and in particular those of earning a living. For young persons beyond the age at which compulsory schooling ceases this is increasingly being seen as an irrelevance and a severe defect.

The crucial question for a local authority considering the reorganization of their educational provision for the 16 plus group is whether to introduce a compulsory break at 16 or not. The arguments for and against have been rehearsed at length. While many students benefit from the opportunity to make a fresh start at 16 plus, there are undoubtedly some who would gain from the continuity of guidance and counselling that an 11–18 school can provide. Although advocates of separate institutions for the 16–19 group cite the freedom from distractions associated with the management of younger pupils as a major advantage, traditionalists place great weight on the opportunities to develop leadership skills amongst sixth formers that the 11–18 school provides. To many it may appear that the clash is merely between vested interests – between sentiment and economics – but major educational issues are involved. The change to a more mature 'college' atmosphere provides a needed stimulus for many young people. An earlier suggestion that many 16-year-olds, particularly those from working class backgrounds, who would stay on into the sixth

form is allowed to continue at the same school, would leave the educational system rather than make a transfer to college at 16 plus seems unfounded. Growing evidence on this point suggests that no such effect exists. A further hypothesis, that the more adult environment of the 16 plus college renders transition to a higher education course rather easier, though persuasive, remains unproven. Higher education courses demand that their students have the capacity to *learn* rather than just *to be taught*, and colleges would claim to foster this capacity rather better than do the schools. Research evidence is needed in this area.

It does seem that within the present range of sixth-form institutions, those catering especially for the 16 plus offer a much wider choice of subjects and more flexible timetabling. In general we feel that the educational arguments and economic considerations both favour the 16–19 college. The case for a break at 16 is very strong.

THE TERTIARY ALTERNATIVE

If a break at 16 plus is accepted, there still remains a choice of pattern between sixth form colleges and tertiary colleges. The sixth-form college often operates in parallel with a local authority college of further education, which may already offer a full-time A-level course. The FE college can also offer a variety of vocational courses which the sixth-form college, operating under school regulations, cannot. The tertiary college, on the other hand, by combining all the educational provision for the 16 plus group into one institution operating under FE regulations, can offer the broadest selection of courses of all. Arguments in favour of the tertiary design note its extension of the comprehensive principle through to post-compulsory education, its greater degree of flexibility particularly for transfer between academic and vocational courses and its genuinely adult atmosphere. Critics of the tertiary college system regret that it offers the student no choice of institution and are worried that the intellectual atmosphere in a tertiary college may not be sufficiently academic to bring out the best from the potential university entrants. The tertiary college is probably more economic to operate than the dual sixth-form college/FE college pattern but no quantitative evidence is yet available on this. In general the tertiary colleges are young and few in number and it is therefore difficult to assess the validity of the criticisms levelled against them. We believe however that this type of institution has many attractive features and that this is a solution to which the local authority should give careful consideration when contemplating reorganization of 16 plus education in their area. Given the present economic climate coupled with a falling birthrate, it seems likely that the tertiary college represents a rationalization of resources which will increasingly recommend itself. The present operation of sixth-form colleges under schools rather than FE regulations brings no real advantages and in many cases serves to hamper efficient cooperation between the different types of colleges. There seems to be no reason why new institutions catering exclusively for the 16 plus should not operate as part of the further education sector. This development would then lead to a situation where secondary education would end at 16 plus followed by a period of non-compulsory tertiary education embracing both academic and vocational work, and preceding either employment or entry into higher education.

(Dean and Choppin)[27]

4.5 The extract you have just read summarizes much of the ground covered so far in this unit and weighs the arguments for and against a break at sixteen, which, in institutional terms, would have the effect of making a distinct sector for sixteen to nineteen year olds. Dean and Choppin's verdict was clear: 'the case for a break at sixteen is very strong . . . we believe that the tertiary college has many attractive features and that this is a solution to which the local authority should give careful consideration when contemplating the reorganization of sixteen-plus education in its area'.

4.6 You need to recognize, though, that such a recommendation, however desirable in theory from an examination of the curricular and economic virtues, does not by itself fully take into account the obstacles presented by political and operational factors of a policy of rationalizing provision for

sixteen to nineteen year olds within a single institution. No LEA, however enthusiastic to redress the present diversity and overlap of institutional arrangements, can start from scratch in working out its policy. Any new policy must begin from the given situation in which the schools already have a major stake in the overall provision for this age group and deploy many teachers, buildings and other resources in making this provision. The operational problems of redeploying these resources would clearly be enormous, as would be the detailed reorganization of those schools that would lose pupils over sixteen. The operational implications of a tertiary policy would clearly be at their most complex where the area concerned was served by an existing three-tier pattern of schools: for example, in an area with middle schools for eight to thirteen year olds and high schools catering for pupils aged fourteen to eighteen, removal of the last two years would leave the unthinkable and unworkable prospect of a two-year high school, unless the whole pattern of schools were to be reorganized as well.

4.7 At the political level, the practicalities are no less severe. I earlier noted the emphatic views of school teachers' unions who demanded a continuing stake in the education of sixteen to nineteen year olds. Is it conceivable, therefore, that a tertiary college policy could be imposed against substantial union opposition? To implement such a policy would require the consent of the large numbers of teachers who would need to move to the new tertiary institutions. A policy based on tertiary colleges, however technically the most desirable, given a 'clean slate', is therefore only likely to be implemented where it is attainable also in operational and political terms. Where this is not possible, educational policy will seek to solve the present problem by alternative methods.

Activity 5 (a) On the issue of breaking education at sixteen, Dean and Choppin wrote: 'to many it may appear that the clash is merely between vested interests – between sentiment and economics – but major educational issues are involved'.

(i) What vested interests are involved?

(ii) What is the economic aspect of the issue?

(iii) What major educational issues are involved?

(b) Given the fact that the policy-maker cannot start from scratch in the planning of a coordinated policy for sixteen to nineteen year olds in any particular area, what options besides a clear break at sixteen are available?

Compare your answers with the author's comments in Appendix 1.

You should spend about twenty minutes on this activity.

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5 An overall view and conclusion

5.1 In this unit, I have sought to present material on two aspects of policy for the provision for sixteen to nineteen year olds. The major part of my concern was to describe the agents, policy tasks and clients in what has been a very diverse sector and to demonstrate how historically separate curricular traditions have been coming into a closer and closer interrelationship, often to the extent of overlap and duplication. The developments suggest to the external observer that there is a need for a policy of overall coordination. Secondly, and as a

subordinate aim, I looked at the running and control of the further education colleges and contrasted the policy constraints with those of the schools. I shall now summarize, in the form of questions, the main issues that were raised in the discussion of both these aspects.

EXTERNAL CONTROL: COLLEGES AND SCHOOLS CONTRASTED

5.2 You saw that the schools have weak external control over policy and a traditional, rather than a legislated, mode of internal policy-making which is heavily centralized in the office of one person, the headteacher. In contrast, the colleges have strong external control over their policy-making and a legally prescribed collective basis for their internal policy-making. For those who point to the mismatch between the aims of the school and the aims of its client as a by-product of weak external control (especially with regard to preparation and competence for occupational life)the contrast between the colleges and the schools might be thought to be instructive. Might it be the case that a restructuring of the government of schools which embraced structural counterparts of the situation in further education could diminish this gap? For example, why could there not be an equivalent of the regional advisory councils, perhaps on a smaller geographical scale, that would more easily permit the coordination of the provision of a number of schools?

OVERALL COORDINATION

5.3 My discussion of this unit's main theme, the format of the total provision for the sixteen to nineteen year olds, generated a good many issues and these I shall summarize under the now familiar four policy tasks of opportunity, curriculum, resources and organization. You should, of course, recall here the counsel of Unit 2, given when this paradigm was first introduced: namely, these are not mutually exclusive categories and analysis of a policy task in any one category immediately leads into the other three.

OPPORTUNITY

5.4 Post-sixteen education raises a number of issues regarding opportunity: that is, the provision and access that should be available. These can be summarized in the following questions:

(a) Should the sixteen to nineteen clients continue to have a choice of types of institution?

(b) Should all have access to industrial training and work preparation as of right?

(c) Should there be a compulsory policy of day-release for all occupations within a given age span?

(d) Should all post-sixteen year olds have equal opportunity to continue in full-time education or training on the same basis of financial support?

ORGANIZATION

5.5 What exactly should be the structure of educational institutions for this age group was the very large issue discussed in sections 3 and 4, and it raises two specific matters:

(a) Should the pattern of institutions be permitted to remain the same, or should they either be rationalized on a tertiary college basis or organized on a basis which permits the continuance of school and college institutions, yet with overall coordination in any area and joint planning and timetabling?

(b) Policies affecting the education and training of the sixteen to nineteen year olds were, in 1978, made by several departments of state: what should be the division of responsibility between the agents involved and what mechanisms of coordination should exist at central and local government levels?

CURRICULUM

5.6 I touched on a number of curricular issues. Given, in my view, the antivocationalism infecting British life and educational provision, the main curricular issues were:

(a) What should be the balance of course provision between the academic, vocational and training spheres, and the relationship of these to the more recent categories of curriculum development connected with preparation for work, remedial education and work experience schemes?

(b) Should the ambiguous status of training and the distinction between training and education be ended, so that training in the basic workshop skills is as much a part of the publicly funded educational provision as is the training of graduates for public administration?

RESOURCES

5.7 In the preceding sections it was indicated that funds are provided by (a) the LEAs; (b) the training agencies of the Department of Employment and, indirectly, by the Department of Health and Social Security; and (c) by

private industry's contribution to training. This heterogenous funding leads to anomalies. The main questions raised were:

(a) How can the present imbalance between the high level of financial support by the Manpower Services Commission and the Department of Health and Social Security, and the low level and uneven application of support for school and further education be resolved?

(b) How should the total provision be paid for? Should all funds be aggregated and redeployed by one agency promoting an overall, coordinated policy?

THE WAY THROUGH THE WOODS?

5.8 In paragraphs 5.3–5.7 above, I summarized in a series of questions the many issues involved in the overall policy problem. The issues seem clear enough and there seems little dispute about what they are, although others might classify them on a basis different from that of policy tasks, which I adopted. If the issues are reasonably clear, the major policy problem concerns the solution which would satisfy the protagonists involved. The fragmented, confused and competing picture of educational provision for sixteen to nineteen year olds appears to be in need of the wisdom of a Solomon if it is to be changed to one governed by a new administrative and legal framework, something which was called for in one of the opening quotations.

5.9 I shall not attempt to adopt the role of Solomon. My task has been to establish the facts and disentangle the issues. It is for those who fill the role of policy-maker to prescribe solutions. Nevertheless, by way of conclusion, I wish to make some commentary on the nature of the policy process in general, which I feel may have a particular bearing to the problem. The particular points I wish to raise concern the time available and the size of the problem. The notion of 'time available' brings into consideration the whole matter of urgency. How much time is available before the penalty of not applying a solution becomes extraordinarily punitive? The related notion of size seeks to quantify the scale of the problem to be tackled. Is the problem so large and severe that it must not only be tackled quickly, but also be dealt with by way of a sweeping reform? You will recall that the introductory views I quoted clearly hold that the problem is both urgent and can properly be solved only by a 'blueprint' type of reform.

5.10 Perceptions of urgency and the scale of the problem, therefore, not only bear on the nature of the solution, but have a clear relationship to the mode of policy-making to be adopted. It is often asserted, and I think rightly, that by tradition the British are incrementalists; that changes in policy follow in a piecemeal or incremental manner. A consequence of this tradition is that the British indulge only rarely in a sweeping or an exceptional policy reform which overrides existing practice and group interests. Hence, there is widely held to be a tradition of so-called British pragmatic policy-making which is bejewelled by a genius for accommodating change with existing political realities, in a step-by-step or incremental manner.

5.11 Bearing in mind these matters of time, the size of the problem and the tradition of British incrementalism, I want you to read the material set out in paragraphs 5.12–5.14 below. Paragraph 5.12 gives a view about the desired policy process when dealing with a problem of great complexity; paragraph 5.13 gives a prescription for the problem offered by a former senior education officer in 1977; and paragraph 5.14 deals with some facts and opinion, from a university professor and a newspaper item, which bear on the relationship of vocational education to the economy of Britain.

Concerning the policy process

5.12 What seems to be required in the early stages of problem assessment is a tolerance for multiple interpretations and the attendant ambiguity. Yet we are accustomed to the opposite in the policy process. We seek a single correct analysis through an adversary approach of competing viewpoints, only one of which can be the right one. The alternative is to explore divergent interpretations even though some will be highly controversial or seem absurd.

(Schwartz *et al*)[28]

One person's thoughts on policy for the sixteen to nineteen age group

5.13 The organizational problem should be looked at in relation to, and seen from, individual student's needs.

The unfortunate dichotomy between the DES and DE (and LEA and TSA) is tending to increase the education/training divide at a time when they should be complementary aspects of a single process – the fulfilment of human potential.

In the immediate future I advocate the 'unified approach' to 16–19 organization – the partnership arrangement between secondary and FE institutions, giving students a genuine choice of institution. This allows for the possibility of a further concentration later.

The immediate need is for LEAs – where this has not been done already – to develop a 16–19 policy whether or not the government issue a policy statement.

There is insufficient evidence at the present time to press the tertiary college as a national solution to the 16–19 problem. It has yet to be proved that the wide range of post-16, part-time education will not suffer from an extended role for colleges of further education.

Sixth-form colleges, as well as sixth-form centres must collaborate with FE institutions to ensure young people have the widest possible choice of subjects and courses.

First steps towards the development of a 16–19 LEA interim policy statement include the collection of factual information from secondary schools and colleges of further education for each area within an authority, including:

(a) current numbers in sixth forms of secondary schools;

(b) current numbers by subjects and courses in sixth and seventh forms of secondary schools;

(c) current numbers on full-time courses in colleges of further education.

In the absence of national guidance, the essentials of an LEA interim policy seem to be:

(a) *Concentration* of provision in fewer institutions – preferably with a declared minimum size, except in remoter areas or where special factors obtain.

Genuine *Cooperation* between contributory and providing institutions. This involves, for some establishments, a loss of or reduced sovereignty.

Widest possible *Choice* of subjects and courses for students.

(b) A single approach in the planning and administration of education for the 16–19 age group to ensure full cooperation between the institutions involved.

(c) The establishment of area boards – professional staff (not elected members) representing the local institutions and the LEA to provide effective machinery for coordination, provision, and guidance for 16–19 education.

(d) The naming of one officer by each LEA as having responsibility under the chief education officer, for 16–19 education in order to coordinate work in this field throughout the area of the LEA. Similar action is needed at the DES.

(e) The establishment by the LEA of a coordinating group of members – presumably related to present schools and further education subcommittees – meeting regularly for joint consideration of total 16–19 education needs, advising on joint planning and the coordination of present provision in the school/FE sectors, having a concern for the range and educational quality of the programme and the effectiveness of the guidance arrangements.

(f) The establishment by the LEA or a system of reports and statistics from institutions and area boards to the chief education officer and the education committee on a continuing basis for policy and control.

(Dyke, E.)[29]

Concerning the importance of vocational education

5.14 Who is going to feed clothe and house our huge population. Ultimately only people who design, make or grow things. And who is going to earn the money to pay for our lawyers, doctors, teachers, administrators and social workers? It is worth emphasising that about forty per cent of our income from exports comes from direct sales of engineering products (machinery, aircraft, ships, engines, electrical equipment, etc.); and there is a large contribution from the engineering industry in the provision of special machinery and power plant required by other exporting industries, from overseas construction work and from consultancy and licence fees. . . .

TABLE 11 UK performance

	1955	*1960*	*1970*	*1975*
Unemployed: number	260 000	340 000	560 000	740 000
% males (age 15–65)	1.5	2.1	3.3	4.2
% share of world exports (manufactures)	20	16	11	8
Import/export ratio (manufactures)	0.5	0.67	1.0	1.1
% universities admissions in technology (home students)		(1966) 16.6	15.6	12.5

Are our brightest young men and women going to take up the challenge? Are they being encouraged to do so? Or are we being faced with a version of Julien Benda's 'treason of the intellectuals'?

(Rodgers, G. F. C.)[30]

Schools shun top prizes, trips for boys and puzzle the Government

Sixth-formers in Wales have missed the chance to win jobs in industry and scholarships with firms such as Rolls-Royce, Courtaulds and Metal Box – and the Government is baffled.

The jobs and scholarships are being offered as prizes, along with trips to America and Europe and cash up to £1,000, in a competition organized by the Department of Industry to find the Younger Engineer for Britain.

Only one Welsh secondary school has entered, even though each received details of the competition from the department.

Entrants had to submit original engineering projects they were working on at school or college.

Dr John Herbert the head of Liswerry School, Newport, said, 'We are still very traditional. When the *Western Mail* dropped its art section from the St David's Day competition there was an outcry because everyone wanted to enter. But technology is different. It is still in a no-man's-land between departments in many schools'.

(Curzon, J.)[31]

5.15 Now that you have read through paragraphs 5.12–5.14 think about the type of policy solution which each expresses or might imply. The first statement clearly takes a pluralist and evolutionary approach to resolving problems. In essence, it is saying 'allow a hundred solutions to bloom; don't dichotomize the options, otherwise the result is confrontation and likely stalemate and inaction'. In contrast, Dyke's statement in paragraph 5.13 is made from a position which believes that, despite the complexity and constraints inherent in the problem, there is a common denominator of policy pragmatism which can be systematically applied. Rather than a plurality of approaches, this view calls for some concerted incremental change to be applied uniformly. The material set out in paragraph 5.14 does not explicitly address itself to a desired mode of a policy solving. However, the implied message is that there is such an urgent need for major policy action regarding vocational education that a radical and sweeping change is needed.

5.16 Now that I have described the agents and issues involved in educational policy for sixteen to nineteen year olds, I am, in conclusion, challenging you to determine for yourself the type of response you would make to the problems that have been outlined were you the policy-maker extraordinary charged to find a solution. Would you be a pluralist and permit the evolution of a best solution, an incrementalist prepared to settle for a measure of acceptable concerted action, or do you see the problem as so large and many sided, and its solution so urgent, that a major blueprint is called for?

Appendix
Author's comments on activities

Activity 1

For many decades the academic, vocational and industrial training curricular traditions were distinct and separately located in different institutional settings; the academic in the grammar schools, the vocational courses in the technical colleges, and industrial training within industry itself. The picture at the end of the 1970s was fluid because: (a) these curricular traditions have merged so that no one type of institution now makes an exclusive curricular provision; (b) there has grown up an increasing number of agents each making policy for the age group on an incremental and uncoordinated basis, to the extent that there are many calls for some degree of rationalization and unification in an overall policy for sixteen to nineteen year olds.

Activity 2

(a) There is a strong control on policy from the external market, for which there is no counterpart in the case of the schools. Colleges teach students who come voluntarily, many of whom are sponsored by industry and commerce. The college must therefore adopt an entrepreneural policy-making role in order to secure a satisfactory flow of students. For the schools there is no similar external sanction and, as the law stipulates that the majority of their clients must attend, they are therefore free to pursue curricular policies which may not match what the clients themselves see as their own prime needs.

(b) The mode of internal policy-making in the colleges can be characterized as a collegial or representative model. It clearly bears close comparison to the 'board of directors' model where policy, though made on a collective basis, is executed by a chief executive or managing director (the principal) with senior executives who execute policy in their respective specialist fields (the heads of department). In contrast, the model of internal policy-making in the schools is hierarchical in that policy is constitutionally made by the head teacher. The model is often characterized by heads themselves as 'captain of the ship'. The school head is therefore sole constitutional policy-maker and chief executive, whereas the college-principal is a chief executive, but not the sole constitutional policy-maker.

Activity 3

(a) There are six agents who make policy for the sixteen to nineteen year olds and they operate at different parts of the system. At central government level three are: (a) the DES, whose policy decisions control the supply of the teachers, buildings and the basic regulations under which the schools and colleges operate; (b) the Department of Employment whose Manpower Services Commission makes training policy which covers this age group; and (c) the Department of Health and Social Security, whose policy decisions on financial support for unemployed sixteen to nineteen year olds facilitates access to further education. At the institutional level, the schools and colleges each make their own local curricular policy. External to the educational system, but interacting with it, industrial employers and the industrial training boards make policy specific to their own training and further education needs. In the exercise set for this activity you may have noticed that both the words policy-maker and provider were used. This was deliberate because not all policy-makers are providers. The LEAs provide the schools and colleges which, in turn, develop the curricular provision. The LEAs are by far the biggest providers, although the Manpower Services Commission does make some provision by directly running some industrial training centres. Some industrial training boards themselves run training centres. In the main though, the policies of the Department of Employment, the Department of Health and Social Security and the industrial training boards are implemented by other providers.

(b) There are so many pressing aspects of policy affecting the provision for this age group that it is really a matter of fine argument which three questions are the most important. I would offer the following:

(i) whether there should be a policy of rationalization of the provisions made by schools and colleges in any given catchment area, in order to avoid duplication and effect due economy;

(ii) whether the balance of provision between academic, vocational and training courses is that which matches the needs of the sixteen to nineteen year olds and the country;

(iii) whether the present variety of criteria for access into further education courses of all kinds is in need of rationalization in order to equalize opportunity for all to continue in full or part-time education or training.

Activity 4

The main arguments for and against a break in education at sixteen are set out in Table 12.

TABLE 12 Arguments for and against a break in education at sixteen

For	*Against*
No school sixth form can provide an adequate range of A-level courses unless the size of school necessary to support a really viable sixth form becomes unmanageably large	Choice of type of institution and of educational ethos would be eliminated
In post-sixteen institutions, specialist subject teachers can devote their whole time to specialist subject work	The work satisfaction of teachers in the schools would be diminished in that they would no longer enjoy a balance of advanced and lower level work, with the result that the overall quality of teaching would suffer
In a specialist post-sixteen institution, the social regime can be wholly adapted to the age group and not governed by the needs of younger children	Such a policy means lack of educational continuity for pupils, so that the performance and educational ambitions of some pupils would be adversely affected. Also pupils would lose the social and psychological support of teachers who had become significant mentors and on whom they had come to trust and rely
A post-sixteen tertiary college would break down existing prejudices against the nonacademic curricular traditions and be more likely to ensure that students' choice of courses reflected both the realities of job opportunities and personal abilities	There would be diminished opportunities for pupils to develop leadership skills. The traditional sixth-form roles of prefects and officers of clubs and societies vis-a-vis younger pupils are seen to be productive of skills in leadership

Activity 5

(a) (i) Any revision of the present arrangements might well involve some of the existing main policy agents losing control of areas of policy, financial resources and manpower which they control at present. Similarly, change might bring considerable gains in terms of prestige, power and rewards to others of the agents at present involved.

(ii) The economic aspect has two components. First, how to achieve a curricular provision that avoids duplication or uneconomically low numbers on courses. Secondly, how to achieve a curricular provision which meets the needs of society and industry generally.

(iii) Clearly, your answer here depends on what is defined as a major educational issue. Some might see the following two issues as meeting this definition: (1) that there should be a choice of institution and educational ethos for those pursuing full-time education after sixteen; (2) that in an age of so-called structural unemployment and depressed world economies it should not be a matter of chance whether this age group is adequately prepared for work and the employment opportunities on offer.

(b) The options are twofold: (i) a federal type of mechanism which coordinates the provision of schools and colleges in a given area; or (ii) a minimum of coordination brought about by the schools in a given area organizing their sixth-form provision on a consortium basis. It is also conceivable that a sixth-form college could coordinate its programme with a further education college.

Notes

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2 *Times Educational Supplement*, 11 November 1977

3 *Times Educational Supplement*, 18 November 1977.

4 *Times Educational Supplement*, 25 November 1977.

5 The figures in Table 1 are drawn from: Department of Education and Science (1977) *Statistics of Education 1975* Vol. 3 *Further Education*, London, HMSO; and Department of Education and Science (1977) *Statistics of Education 1976* Vol. 1 *Schools*, London, HMSO.

6 King, R. (1976) *School and College, Studies of Post Sixteen Education*, London, Routledge and Kegan Paul Ltd.

7 Dean, J. and Choppin, B. (1977) *Educational Provision 16–19*, Windsor, National Foundation for Educational Research, p. 39.

8 ibid., p. 41.

9 ibid. p. 41.

10 Bristow, A. (1976) *Inside the Colleges of Further Education*, London, HMSO.

11 See DES Administrative Memoranda, AM 1/76 and 12/77.

12 See Department of Education and Science (1978) *Further Education Curriculum Review and Development Unit, Annual Report 1977–78*, London, HMSO.

13 Hayes, F. C. (1976) 'TSA five-year plan', *Coombe Lodge Reports*, vol. 9 no. 6, pp. 179–84.

14 Manpower Services Commission (1978) *Annual Report 1977–8*, London, HMSO.

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24 House of Commons (1972) *Evidence Given to the Education and Arts Subcommittee of the House of Commons Expenditure Committee*, London, HMSO.

25 ibid.

26 Cited in Dean and Choppin, op. cit. (note 7), p. 49.

27 Dean and Choppin, op. cit. (note 7), pp. 78–80.

28 Schwartz, P., Teige, P. J. and Harman, W. (1977) 'In search of tomorrow's crisis', *Futurist*, October.

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30 Rogers, G. F. C. (1977) 'La Trahison Des Clercs', *Education in Science*, no. 72, pp. 22–3.

31 Curzon, J. (1978) *Western Mail*, 30 June.

Acknowledgements

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Text

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Tables

Table 5 from Manpower Services Commission; *Table 11* from G. F. C. Rogers 'Le Trahison des Clercs' in *Education in Science,* No. 72 1977. Reproduced by permission of the author.

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Illustrations

Cartoons by Fred Sumner, specially commissioned for this unit. Cartoon on p. 58 from *THES* 10.10.75.

E222 The control of education in Britain

UNIT 1 An Introduction to the Control of Education in Britain

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